The Nation.

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The Week.

Mr. Aldrich's defence of the Senate finance committee's tariff bill as free from "extreme" features reads queerly in view of the dozens of cases already pointed out on the Democratic side where the rates are higher than those of the McKinley law. The Rhode Island Senator recognizes the hopelessness of defending his position in such cases, and last week made no attempt to answer the declaration that the duties on flint and glass bottles are already so high as practically to prevent any importations, albeit large increases are now proposed. So long as the Republican manager has votes enough to carry his point, he allows the other side to have all the argument, and the "combine" which he has arranged shows thus far no sign of disintegration. But it is one thing to put through Congress a so-called revenue bill which is full of prohibitive duties, and another thing to defend it on the stump.

In the new tariff bill prohibitive rates of duty are imposed on onions imported from the Bermudas. For the last thirty or forty years New York merchants have imported from those islands annually about 75,000 bushels of potatoes and 300,000 of onions, these importations being chiefly made between the months of January and June, before our own farms produce fresh vegetables. The McKinley law imposed a duty of 40 cents per bushel on onions, which in the last year of its operation was equivalent to a rate of 51 per cent. on the average value, then 78 cents. This made the selling price so high that the trade became unprofitable and gradually fell off. The Wilson act reduced the rate to 20 cents, and importations increased, the revenue reaching $72,000 a year. The pending bill restores the specific rate of 1890, but as the average price of onions has fallen to 69 cents a bushel, the old duty is now practically 10 per cent. higher, and must result in practically stopping importations.

It is quite natural that no explanation of such provisions should be attempted, for there is absolutely no way of making them appear reasonable. Bermuda onions do not compete with American, for they are brought here almost entirely before the native crop ripens. They come at a time when fresh vegetables are desired, and they can be sold at a moderate price if the Government does not interfere to prevent. They come from a country which has used the returns from this crop largely in the purchase of supplies of various sorts in the United States, and which cannot continue these purchases if it cannot sell to us. Finally, the crop is to a large extent raised through the use of American capital, as our merchants furnish advances to the Bermuda farmers so generally that the crop is practically paid for by them before any of it is shipped, and this advantageous use of home money must end if importations are stopped. In face of all these considerations, the tariff-makers appear resolved to stick to the prohibitive rate, and "provide revenue for the Government" by sacrificing the $72,000 a year which has been paid on Bermuda onions under the Wilson act.

The Government revenue during May, as reported by the Treasury's monthly bulletin, shows a considerable decrease. The month's total receipts from all sources were $29,797,390, against $37,812,135 in April and $36,217,662 in March. Ordinarily, the monthly revenue during the three or four spring months holds to a pretty even level; these wide fluctuations in the present season are therefore merely an index to the influence of the pending tariff bill. In April, when the increase in importations reached its maximum, the customs revenue showed an increase of nearly $13,000,000 over either February or January. Other sources of revenue remained substantially unchanged, so that this amount represents the maximum increase in the Government revenue under the spur of the "retroactive clause." A long-continued deficit was changed by this sudden rush of dutiable imports into a surplus, and in March, when expenditure was relatively light, this surplus ran as high as $9,004,665.

But the sudden decrease in both revenue and surplus during May suggests that the picture may before long present another side. The import movement forced by the tariff bill culminated in the opening week of May. Imports that week—the last, probably, in which goods coming in could escape the Dingley retroactive threat—were heavy almost beyond precedent. But in the later weeks import receipts suddenly decreased 40 per cent. or more. The federal revenue, as we have seen, has decreased with them. For May there is a surplus revenue of only $688,131. If the trade in dutiable imports continues to decrease, there will be a deficit again, and there is little reason to suppose that importations will not decrease. The heavy import trade of March and April came in response to no urgent demand from regular consumers; on the contrary, sales were slower even than in the two or three preceding months. The excessive importations, made to escape the threatened enormous duties, must therefore overhang the market for some time to come, and in proportion as they do, to precisely that extent must the future movement of dutiable imports be contracted. The outcome is not easy to discern, but the Treasury figures show, plainly enough, what it was that frightened the Senate finance committee into the imposition of additional revenue taxes pure and simple. Meantime, it is worth noticing that for the month of May the total expenditures exceeded by $682,667 those of May, 1896, and that for the eleven completed months of the fiscal year the increase in expenditures is $16,086,461. Sooner or later, this side of the problem must receive the first attention.

According to the usual monthly bulletin of the Government, estimating the amount and kinds of money circulating in the United States, our money supply continues to show an enormous increase over 1896. During the month of May, the gold exports caused some slight net decrease in the aggregate circulating medium. But as compared with the statement of June 1, 1896, the total money supply outside the holdings of the Treasury has increased no less than $138,149,612, or nearly 9 per cent. About one-half this increase was in gold, occasioned both by the heavy gold imports of last autumn and the large production of our mines. But there was also $27,403,000 increase in the amount of silver dollars coined, all of which increase went into general circulation. Nine per cent. is a fairly heavy ratio of increase in a country's circulating medium; it is four to five times as large as the ratio of increase in this country's population, under the best of circumstances. We should imagine, therefore, that if the theories of the silver-inflationists have any truth in them, trade and industry ought to be pretty nearly at high-water mark. The banks, we are sometimes informed, have cornered this increased supply. But the banks have only what their individual depositors have brought to them, and are just now straining every nerve to lend out what they have at almost the lowest rates on record. This is not the way in which corners are usually managed; the familiar process is to get the money, as the banks are imagined to have done, and then charge 10 or 15 or 20 per cent. to the unlucky borrowing public. Why are the silver oracles so reluctant to talk about the increase in

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the money supply, along with the falling discount rate?

There are two very obvious reasons for the equanimity with which this season's gold exports have been regarded. One is the rather prevalent belief that the outward movement will not be very large. This is in some degree a matter of conjecture. The shipments thus far in the year have been, it is true, very decidedly below the average of the past six years, and last week they showed undoubted signs of slackening. Moreover, the large excess of exported merchandise during 1896 left the country without a heavy foreign debit, and there have been no such sales of our securities by Europe as served in 1895 and 1894 to turn against us the scales of international exchange. The influence of our unprecedentedly heavy merchandise imports during May and April, when the day of settlement arrives, is not so easy to forecast; but for the present no great anxiety on that score seems to exist. We believe, however, that the business community's indifference to our $18,000,000 gold exports, at this date, is based chiefly on the situation of the Treasury. Much of this export gold has been taken from the Government's supply in exchange for legal-tender notes, and through this process the net balance in the Treasury has been reduced from $155,639,773, its maximum of the year, to $144,177,037 by Saturday's report. But the lower of these figures is far above the ordinary sum in hand at this season of the year; it is 35 per cent. of the amount of legal tenders actually outstanding, and unless these floating Government notes are heavily increased, this is a reasonably safe reserve.

The appointment of Ellis H. Roberts to the position of Treasurer of the United States by President McKinley is a matter which ought not to be passed over in silence. Mr. Roberts was appointed by President Harrison Assistant Treasurer in New York, an office whose relations to the banks are too well known to financiers to need particular mention. Mr. Roberts almost immediately began to solicit loans of money from the leading banks, offering a kind of security which they would never have looked upon a second time if he had not held the office which he did hold. These borrowings were frequent and amounted to about $50,000 in the aggregate. If they had been repaid, the case would still have been a scandal calling for censure and removal from office. We have no reason to suppose, however, that they were brought to President Harrison's attention. But the loans were not paid. They were compromised after Roberts's retirement from office at 25 cents or some other fraction of a dollar. These facts were known to President McKinley. It was known to him, before he sent in the nomination, that Roberts had begged this money from the banks while holding office as aforesaid, to the amount of many thousands of dollars, and yet he promotes Roberts to a higher office in the same branch of service than the one he held before. Such an act betrays a moral obliquity that we were not prepared for. The most obvious comment is that Mr. McKinley has plastered his own robes with mud without relieving Roberts of any part of it. Time was when such a nomination, if sent to the Senate, would have been sent back with indignation. It has not been so now because it was first sent from the Senate to McKinley, and is the measure of his voluntary and needless surrender to that body.

Last week's Democratic State convention in Kentucky was simply a gathering of Bryanites. The free-coinage element had entire control of the State committee, and disqualified from participation in the primaries all who did not accept the Chicago platform. Under such circumstances there was no opposition to reaffirming that deliverance and making it the State platform this year. Those who believe in sound money are thus notified that their help is not wanted, and the National Democrats will be forced out of self-respect to run a ticket of their own. The only State office at stake is the clerkship of the Appellate Court, and the campaign, consequently, can be waged among former Democrats on the question of principles, without distraction by pleas that the government must not be turned over to the Republicans.

The lynching of a negro on Friday in Urbana, O., for an assault upon a white woman, throws a flood of light upon the frequency of such performances in the South. The colored population of Ohio is small; crimes of this sort on its part are rare; the offender in the present case had been promptly arrested, tried, convicted, and sentenced to the twenty years' imprisonment which is the full penalty of the law for the crime; and yet a mob of "the better class of citizens," women urging on their husbands, in broad daylight, without attempting disguise, broke into the jail, dragged out the prisoner, and put him to death in the most brutal way. When such an event is possible in a Northern State, one can understand more easily why the whites so often take the law into their own hands in Southern communities, where the blacks largely outnumber them, where such crimes are common, and where the plea for vengeance can be so much more strongly urged. But the Urbana lawlessness was only the worst of several disgraceful lynchings and attempted lynchings in Ohio during the last few years. In one case the commander of a regiment which had been called out to preserve the peace, had to stand trial for the murder of a man who had been shot by his force, and a sheriff who had done his duty was overwhelmingly beaten for this cause when he ran for reëlection. Such things signify a decline of the respect for law which is nothing short of alarming when we consider that it is manifested in one of the oldest States of the Union. Race prejudice was undoubtedly one element in the Urbana lynching, and abhorrence of a shocking crime was another; but what happened would have been impossible in a community which had been trained in proper regard for the law. The people are too generally losing respect for the makers and the administrators of the law, and the result is that, when they find, as this Urbana mob did, that the statute does not affix so severe a penalty as they think that a crime deserves, they disregard all statutes and relapse into the methods of the savage.

The Cubans may be starving, but they themselves are not aware of it. A member of Gomez's staff, fresh from the field after two years' service, informed the Senate sub-committee on Thursday that the starvation which Congress was in such a hurry to relieve was imaginary. That the insurgents were short of supplies he denied "with great emphasis," and affirmed that "the people of the island were not suffering for food." This agrees with other independent and first-hand testimony. Congress might easily have found this out had it not adopted, in foreign affairs, the policy of voting in headlong haste and without debate whatever money is demanded. As things are, it is now left in the foolish position of having given a sturdy beggar five times what he can possibly need. And the worst of it is that it did this, not on the representation of the beggar himself, who never dreamed of being so impudent, but on the malicious urging of a lot of street gamins—"war correspondents" they call themselves in this case.

The so-called settlement of the Spanish ministerial crisis is a curious affair. Cánovas nominally resigned because the Liberals and dissenting Conservatives would not attend the sessions of the Cortes. The reason they gave for not attending was that the Duke of Tetuan, the Foreign Minister, had boxed the ears of Prof. Comas. Cánovas tried to arrange that by getting the Duke to resign and go as Minister to France. But this did not placate the Liberals, and so the Prime Minister placed his resignation in the hands of the Queen-Regent. Then suddenly it became a question of the Cuban policy. Marshal

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Campos was summoned to the palace; the Presidents of the Senate and the Chamber were summoned, the Minister of War was summoned. Was Gen. Weyler to be recalled? Would a policy of conciliation succeed that of force? That was the burden of the dispatches for several days, when, lo! it was announced that the only issue was Cánovas's *amour propre;* that the Queen supported him, and that he was going to retain power with his cabinet intact. That this accounts for all the excitement it is ridiculous to suppose. What may be going on behind all this kicking up of dust, it is difficult to say; but the published explanations of both the cause of the crisis and its solution are too bouffe to be taken seriously.

As soon as the Venezuela arbitration treaty was ratified, the Venezuelan President sat down and wrote to his good friend at Princeton, suggesting that Venezuela would like to retain him to argue its case before the tribunal. Mr. Cleveland replied that, in view of his relations to the case, it would be manifestly improper for him to do so. This Crespo knew just as well as any one else; but the temptation to secure as his counsel and put in his pay the ex-President who had committed himself from the first to his side of the case, and compelled the other side to arbitrate it, was too great to be resisted. The offer was really an insult, but the wily Venezuelan had the advantage of knowing that it could not very well be resented as such. Mr. Cleveland's reply, however, if the abstract of it published is correct, is, in its mere rehearsal of reasons for his refusal, no less a pointed rebuke than a civil acknowledgment.

The cable account of the annual meeting of the Bimetallic League at Manchester on June 2 was evidently the work of the League itself. It began with a list of the names of noted bimetallists, and any one looking at the dispatch hastily would gather that the meeting derived its importance from such men as Lord Aldenham, Mr. Balfour, Mr. Henry Chaplin, Mr. A. de Rothschild, the Duke of Fife, and the Marquis of Lorne. But the only contribution to it which they really made consisted of letters of regret that they could not be present. Regret was also expressed at the death of Gen. Walker, and the only person of note who is mentioned as having been actually present in the flesh was the Mayor of Manchester. But there was a large attendance, chiefly of labor delegates, and much hope was expressed for the future, based on such significant facts as the polling by McKinley of 7,000,000 votes on a platform pledging him to promote international bimetallism. Lord Aldenham (Mr. Gibbs) suggested that the objects of the League would be gained if any "great commercial nation" would begin to "carry the matter through, even without England." Discussion like this will do good. The great danger in bimetallism lay in the idea that it was an economists' doctrine, which plain men could not understand and would have to accept on trust. But the bimetallists are making the whole subject as plain as a pikestaff.

The peculiar awkwardness of Mr. Chamberlain's situation, in view of the latest Transvaal disclosures, is of his own creating. If he had not been so sweeping in his denials, in his speech of February 13, 1896, he would not now have to appear to be doing such expert wriggling. He then affirmed: "To the best of my knowledge and belief, everybody—Mr. Rhodes, the Chartered Company, the Reform Committee of Johannesburg, the High Commissioner—were all equally ignorant of the intention or action of Dr. Jameson." Now it has appeared in evidence that Dr. Harris, Rhodes's agent, thought he had given Mr. Chamberlain to understand that Jameson's force would go in under certain circumstances. He would not swear to this, in the face of Mr. Chamberlain's recollecting nothing about it, but that was his impression. What he was sure of was that he had spoken plainly of the scheme to Mr. Fairfield, Mr. Chamberlain's confidential clerk at the Colonial Office. But Mr. Chamberlain has two defences: in the first place, Fairfield is now dead; in the second, he was, while living, very deaf, and might not have understood what Dr. Harris said. Chamberlain put this point delicately to Dr. Harris. Did he know that Mr. Fairfield was deaf? Yes, he knew it, but he thought he understood what was said well enough. But the defence is impregnable: Fairfield was deaf; even if he heard he said nothing to me; even if he did he is dead and cannot be brought here to contradict me.

The bill attacking the right of public meeting and association which the German Emperor has been trying to wring from a reluctant Parliament, is inconceivably absolutist in terms. Personally, William has ample defence in the laws against lèse-majesté; over five hundred sentences for this offence were passed in Germany last year. But he wants a weapon against impersonal political discussion, and the bill which the Chancellor drew at his orders placed the right of public meeting and debate absolutely at the mercy of the police. It put a stigma upon all such meetings by prohibiting the presence at them of all persons under age. Any meeting could be dissolved in the discretion of the police; under the terms of the bill any kind of society, even a scientific or religious gathering, could be broken up if the policeman on duty thought anything said dangerous to morals, good order, or the Government. To subscribe to the funds of a society, any of whose public meetings had required to be interfered with, was made a penal offence. The only hope in case the bill passed (it has failed for the present) would be that some bold and faithful policeman would arrest the Emperor himself on the occasion of his next inflammatory speech. No public meetings in Germany can be so perilous to morals, good order, or the Government itself, as William's harangues to his soldiers and burgomasters. To be able to suppress his liberty, not to say license, of speech, the German people would endure much.

The Austrian lower house was closed on June 2 by the Emperor, and sent about its business; this course having been rendered necessary by constant scenes of disorder. The origin of the trouble was connected with the introduction of Czech as an official language in Bohemia. The announcement of this by the Government led a month since to a motion to impeach Count Badeni, the Premier, then to obstruction, followed by a riot, in which desks were overturned, inkstands smashed, books flung in speakers' faces, and coarse invectives, and finally blows, exchanged. Count Badeni, in proroguing the House, pointed out that such scenes tend to "undermine the foundations of parliamentary institutions." There is no doubt of that, and a very good way to recall the fact to members of such a body is to disperse it. The Bohemian trouble goes very deep, and is in one respect like the Irish trouble with England. The Czechs are not of German race, and hate the German language, laws, and customs. There is a regular Czech propaganda, which looks to the reërection of Bohemia into a kingdom, like Hungary, and its de-Teutonization. Prague, which, fifty years ago, was a German city, has become in our own time thoroughly Czech, and the victory of the language, now recognized by the Government, is almost fatal to German influence. The quarrel is one of those race quarrels of which the political life of the Austrian empire is in great part made up, fought out, from generation to generation, with a ferocity and tenacity strangely contrasted with the amicable sinking of race disputes in a new nationality which we constantly witness on this side of the water. It is, of course, partly a labor quarrel, and rages in the lowest strata of the population as well as in Parliament. It is so hard to get a living in Europe that most quarrels there connected with the struggle for existence are more bitter than with us.

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A UNIQUE MUSEUM.

The city of Philadelphia is the right place to start a movement for the promotion of foreign trade, and President McKinley is the right man to inaugurate it, and this is the right time to begin it. The time, man, and place came together on Wednesday of last week when a new Commercial Museum was opened with appropriate ceremonies in the City of Brotherly Love. This museum is of a comprehensive type. It collects samples of the raw products and materials of industry in all countries and keeps them on exhibition for buyers. It does the same with respect to manufactured goods so far as practicable. The prospectus tells us that it has a bureau of information whose object is

"to reach out through its agents into all foreign countries, and bring together a mass of commercial information which shall be carefully indexed, systematized, and given out, through proper sources, to trades organizations, manufacturers, and commercial individuals throughout this and foreign countries. The bureau of information is supported by a commercial library, which receives publications from the different departments of foreign governments, from trades organizations, and from the representative industries; also by the consular services of different countries, by publications and special reports from foreign chambers of commerce, as well as the answers to well-directed inquiries sent out to appointed agents doing business in foreign countries."

The museum has an advisory board, also, consisting of representatives of twenty-five boards of trade and chambers of commerce in the United States, and over forty chambers of commerce in other American republics.

This may be called a world-embracing scheme, for although particularly designed to promote commercial relations with South America, it does not overlook the countries of the Old World. President McKinley performed an obvious and patriotic duty in going to Philadelphia and lending his countenance to the inauguration of this enterprise. His speech, indeed, showed defective knowledge touching the essential elements of trade, but these deficiencies were admirably supplied by the Minister of Brazil, who followed him. Mr. McKinley brought out strongly the fact that in order to sell goods you must have a buyer. This elementary truth is naturally joined to others equally striking, which the President set forth in the following manner:

"My fellow-citizens, there is no motive to make a product if you can't find somebody to take it. The maker must find the taker. You will not employ labor to make a product unless you can find a buyer for that product after labor has made it. Gentlemen, I am glad to meet representatives of the American republics here to-night. I am glad to meet representatives of the governments of all the world here to-night. I have met the manufacturers of Philadelphia and the State of Pennsylvania before. I met you in the days of your highest prosperity. I cannot avoid meeting you if I would, and I would not if I could, in this your hour of somewhat prolonged adversity.

"But let me tell you, my countrymen, that resuscitation will not be promoted by recrimination. The distrust of the present will not be removed by a distrust of the future. A patriot makes a better citizen than a pessimist, and we have got to be patient, for much as we may want to move out of the old house, we cannot do it until the new one is finished. A tariff law half made is of no practical use except to indicate that in a little while a whole tariff law will be done, and it is making progress. It is reaching the end, and when the end comes we will [shall] have business confidence and industrial activity. Let us keep stout hearts and steady heads, and the country is not going backwards, but forwards."

Now it happens that two of the largest exported raw products and materials of the South American countries are wool and hides. It happens, too, that these are now free of duty in our ports, and that the pending tariff bill imposes the highest duties that have ever been known on the former, and that it subjects the latter to tariff taxation for the first time in twenty-five years. These facts could not have been absent from President McKinley's mind, since wool is the "keystone of the arch," while hides are not much inferior in importance. Yet he made no mention of them. Minister Mendonça of Brazil was not so reticent. He said that the inauguration of this museum was based upon the community of interests of the republics of North, South, and Central America, and that the representatives of the museum selected from American chambers of commerce were here to promote the same. How? By going to Washington "to plead our common cause under the dome of the capitol." In other words, they were doing or were about to do the very opposite thing to what Mr. McKinley prefigured as the requisite of prosperity. These gentlemen were undoubtedly intending to urge Congress not to pass a bill putting new and onerous duties on wool, hides and skins, nitrates, fibres, oranges, and other products of the countries whose trade the museum wishes to secure. There was apparently a touch of sarcasm in the tone of Mr. Mendonça's discourse. Indeed, he must have been strangely lacking in the sense of humor if it were not so. But eventually he came down to sober facts and used plain language, thus:

"Resuming, your commissioners must have added that, without free raw materials stipulated in treaties of commerce for a number of years necessary to give stability to trade, no reciprocity arrangements can be made, as coercion will not coerce independent nations. All this your manufacturers and merchants must have said, and I thank them on behalf of my colleagues for their hypothetic sympathy. If my surmise is not right, then your plan is wrong, and the opening to-day of your temple of industry will be equivalent to the opening of the temple of Janus, the Roman god of two faces, the doors of which were kept closed in times of peace and only opened as a sign of war."

The whole affair would have been a solemn mockery without this speech of the Brazilian Minister, for it would have implied that nobody engaged in the ceremony was able to perceive the incongruity of opening a museum to promote commerce with South America and at the same time promoting a tariff whose avowed aim is to exclude the products of those countries from our ports.

CONGRESS, PRESIDENT, AND BUSINESS MEN.

"The tariff, money, economy of expenditures must be arranged fairly and promptly if we are to find contentment or prosperity." This remark by Mr. John Wanamaker, in his interview in the *Herald*, reaffirming his speech of May 14 before the Philadelphia Bourse, undoubtedly expresses the hard business sense of the country. Whatever of exasperation or of despair there may be in it springs from the general feeling that things are going sadly wrong at Washington. Mr. Wanamaker is suspected of being the "pessimist," in eloquent contrast with whom Mr. McKinley set "the patriot" in his address at Philadelphia. But, to imitate the President's fondness for alliteration, we may say that facts are stronger than fustian. What are the facts? What is Congress, what is the President, doing to pass a tariff that will produce adequate revenue, to reform the currency, to keep down extravagance?

Taking the last item first, we have to note the fact that on Friday Mr. McKinley signed the sundry civil bill. This was practically the same bill, appropriating upwards of $53,000,000, that Mr. Cleveland refused to sign, in the last hours of his Presidency, on the ground that it was stuffed with jobs and swollen with needless appropriations. To justify himself he had only to refer to the confession of the Republican chairman of the committee on appropriations, that "the appropriations are, in my judgment, in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service." But Mr. Cannon expressed at the same time his pious hope that "the incoming President" would help Congress keep "our public expenditures within the sum of our public revenues." This did not seem altogether a joke when the incoming President's inaugural address declared that

"Economy is demanded in every branch of the Government at all times, but especially in periods like the present of depression in business and distress among the people. The severest economy must be observed in all public expenditures, and extravagance stopped wherever it is found, and prevented wherever in the future it may be developed. If the revenues are to remain as now, the only relief that can come must be from decreased expenditures."

This was on March 4; on June 4, the sternly economical Executive quietly signs a spendthrift, log-rolled bill, which his predecessor killed, and which his own party leaders and press have denounced as indefensibly extravagant. This surrender to Congress was really foreshadowed, not only in Mr. McKinley's whole career, but in the express words of his inaugural denying "sym-

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pathy" to those who thought Congress in session a source of uneasiness to the country. That was practically an invitation to Congress to raid the President, which it has not been slow to do. It has now found out that he will sign any kind of money bill it sends him. It had before found out that he had determined to turn over his power of appointment to Congress. For a time he begged off in the matter of consuls; those he must hold back in order to keep members of the House in Washington ready to vote on the tariff. But Congressmen were inexorable, and so on Saturday the first batch of consuls went in. The notification to business men is thus complete that the bulwark against a headstrong and reckless Congress which they once thought they had in the President, now fails them.

What has the Administration done to fulfil its pledge to reform the currency? Well, the good part of its pledge it has confined to mere soft words; the mischief-making part it has translated into speedy action. Who would have thought last November, when the country was agonizing to save the gold standard by electing McKinley, that within three months of his inauguration he would be toasted at a banquet in Paris as "the greatest bimetallist of the age"? That is what his roving bimetallic commissioners have done for him. They have gone abroad presumably without any definite proposition to make—certainly without any that they have any right or power to make. They are making themselves and the country ridiculous, with their dinners and interviews and boxes at the races; while every official who receives them hastens to say that he was pleased to meet them, but that he wanted it understood he had promised them nothing. This is what has been done, and all that has been done, in the interest of currency reform by a President elected mainly on that issue. Action looking to further bedevilling the currency is only partially offset by Secretary Gage's hopeful words about what is going to be done when the tariff is out of the way, and when Congress suddenly becomes patriotic and businesslike.

As for congressional action on the tariff, that may truly be said to have become the nightmare of the business world. On this point Mr. Wanamaker speaks the thoughts of many hearts when he says:

> "We ought to have a new, a better tariff; but if we cannot get it let us settle down on the old one and adjust ourselves to it as best we can. If we cannot move out of the old house, we might build a wing to it or add another story. Far better that than vexing uncertainties. A Republican House has been in session since last December, and its riddled bill still tosses about at the other end of the capitol."

This is a plain hint that the Wilson tariff, with a few revenue duties added, if necessary, to take the place of the income tax, would be welcomed by business men as a happy release from the fierce and scandalous strife at Washington between bills, neither of which promises to bring in sufficient revenue. To this complexion, then, have we come after three months. Congress has afresh demonstrated its incapacity to deal with large finance in a large way. Even the tariff bill, which was to have passed with all certainty by May 1, is dragging itself along with no end in sight, and the end, when it does come, promising to be a catastrophe. Business men despair of any good thing coming out of Congress. Their despair is not lightened by their perception that the President has no will against that of Congress.

THE BOGUS AMERICAN.

According to a Washington dispatch, negotiations are going on between this country and Spain for a new naturalization treaty. Such a treaty would do a great deal to allay one constant cause of trouble between the two countries—the existence under the present system of a body of so-called naturalized American citizens, who are really Cubans by birth and residence, but who take out mock naturalization papers in order to get protection from the United States when they foment disturbances against their own government or get into trouble of any kind. This fraud is resorted to, of course, all over the world, and most of our existing treaties with foreign nations may be said to favor it; it produces most serious difficulty in our relations with Spain, because of the chronic Cuban outbreaks.

Two great causes which have combined to make the international questions surrounding citizenship in modern times so difficult are the increased facility of locomotion, and the bodily transfer within fifty years of an enormous European population to the United States. Before the period of this great migration, the whole matter was comparatively simple. Citizenship depended upon nativity, that is, blood, and could never be renounced or abandoned. The origin of this doctrine we can easily trace back to the Middle Ages, before the modern world existed, and still further to Rome. When the barbarians conquered Europe, and created the modern territorial nationalities, there was no doctrine better fitted to commend itself to them than that of "once a citizen, always a citizen." It suited the European ideas of the military tie, and the fancy of the blood-relationship among all members of the same state, which was sedulously cultivated by communities ignorant of the fact that it was really a badge of barbarian tribal superstition. The English lawyers have clung with great tenacity even to our day to the doctrine that "no one can strip himself of his country."

The appearance of the American state in the field, with an invitation to all the world to settle within its borders, abandon their own countries, and obtain a new nationality, was fatal to this theory, and our growing strength and determination to protect our citizens abroad, of whatever origin, compelled a gradual abandonment of the old European view of the subject. It was not, however, until nearly thirty years since that we succeeded in getting European countries to formally ratify our view by means of treaties. A series of conventions made in the years following the close of the war established for ever the modern doctrine, long contended for single-handed by this country, that every man, no matter where born, may adopt his country, renounce his allegiance to that of his birth, and acquire all the rights of a native-born citizen. Belgium, Baden, Bavaria, Hesse, Würtemberg, and the North German Union in 1868, Sweden and Norway in 1869, Austria-Hungary in 1870, and Great Britain in 1870 and 1871, all adopted with us a reciprocal rule of citizenship by which the citizens of either country could become naturalized in the other, either by complying with the naturalization laws only, or by a residence of five years added to this. The difference is for practical purposes not very material. These treaties record one of the great advances in human liberty secured by this country.

But, like many other such advances, it is attended with dangers. If it were possible to obtain naturalization at will in any country without regard to either birth or residence, a man might be a citizen in half-a-dozen different countries, accepting the protection and repudiating the burdens of citizenship in all in turn—a veritable "man without a country" and citizen of the world at one and the same time. Although not yet attempted to this grotesque extent, this is exactly the scheme of the bogus American of to-day. He is a citizen of two countries, and he serves neither. He actually lives in the country of his origin. So long as he is asked no questions he passes for what he is—a German, or a Frenchman, or an Italian, or a Cuban. But the moment he is required to serve in the army, or be punished as an anarchist or revolutionist, he boldly shouts, "Civis Americanus sum," and triumphantly produces his "papers." We have recently heard of a case where one of these gentry went to the American Minister, showed him two sets of papers, one American and one foreign, and asked him which he had better use. Three-quarters of the Cuban patriots who make such a noise in the newspapers are of this sort. Their names are Spanish, their birth is Spanish, and their residence is Spanish; but they carry about with them documents proving that at some time or other they took out naturalization papers in a

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country to which they render no service, and which they use these papers to drag into foreign quarrels.

The difficulty arises evidently from the fact that the treaties treat the whole subject as if, after a new naturalization is acquired, the subsequent behavior or change of residence of the citizen made no difference whatever. In only one treaty, that made with Ecuador in 1872, is this subject touched. Its provisions are:

"Art. 2. If a naturalized citizen of either country shall renew his residence in that where he was born, without an intention of returning to that where he was naturalized, he shall be held to have reassumed the obligations of his original citizenship, and to have renounced that which he had obtained by naturalization.

"Art. 3. A residence of more than two years in the native country of a naturalized citizen shall be construed as an intention on his part to stay there without returning to that where he was naturalized. This presumption, however, may be rebutted by evidence to the contrary."

This treaty furnishes a key to the solution of the trouble. The moment the point is stated, any one can see it. The obligations of a citizen and his government are reciprocal, and citizenship without continuous residence makes a farce of the whole thing, because without jurisdiction of the person a government cannot make a citizen perform military service, or, in many cases, pay taxes, or perform jury duty, or even obey the process of its courts. To be a citizen without these liabilities is like drawing dividends from a corporation without contributing to the capital. Bona-fide residence is almost invariably, in modern times, the real test of citizenship for all, and, having abandoned the old test, we must enforce this new one, or we shall fill the world with bogus Americans, a class little better than common swindlers, but whose operations are full of danger to both the countries cheated. There are, of course, exceptions. Public employment and other considerations make it necessary that there should always be a certain number of citizens living abroad, yet entitled to preserve their citizenship. The treaty quoted provides for this by declaring that even long-continued change of residence shall not be conclusive.

THE EXPERT IN COURT.

Last year the scandalous Fleming trial attracted a great deal of attention to the subject of expert medical testimony. The homœopaths have since taken the matter up, and have, with the aid of some well-known members of the bar, prepared a bill on the subject. The matter is one which presents many difficulties, but it is a great thing that a genuine effort is to be made to obtain legislation. As the proposed measure has been sent to us for criticism, we have examined it with some care. The idea on which it is based we believe to be perfectly sound, and, in fact, to be the only view of the subject on which legislation can be successfully based. That idea is that the expert witnesses on the trial of indictments must be all judicially selected witnesses, and not depend for their remuneration upon either one side or the other. This object the bill effects by requiring the court, on application, to appoint from three to five experts from a judicially prepared list. They are to be properly qualified, and, "in special and extraordinary cases," diplomas obtained elsewhere than in New York may qualify them. On their appearance, they are to be sworn and examined by the court, and also by the counsel, if desired, upon their medical qualification and impartiality; and those who are not excluded are to be appointed as a commission of experts in the action.

Every expert witness is to make an oath or affirmation that he has not talked about the case to any one except the other expert witnesses, and,

"in case I have made or participated in any scientific experiments, or physical, or mental examination preparatory to testifying herein, that I have not knowingly given to any person other than said experts any information or intimation as to the results of such experiment or examination; and if in such experiment or examination I have required the assistance of any other person, that no person having any interest in or connection with this action, directly or indirectly, has in any manner participated therein, to the best of my knowledge and belief."

An expert witness is to receive such compensation as the court prescribes in the order of appointment, not less than $10 nor more than $100 a day, with the mileage paid to all witnesses. All rights of examination and cross-examination are preserved, but

"if, upon preliminary cross-examination at the trial with reference to his qualifications, it shall appear that any such witness has, either before or after his appointment, expressed an opinion as to the merits of said action, or as to the matters concerning which he proposes to testify, to any person other than the other expert witnesses appointed by the court in such action, or has knowingly given to any person other than said experts any information or intimation as to the nature of his opinion or testimony or as to the opinion or testimony of either of such experts, or as to the results of any scientific experiment or examination which he or either of such experts may have made or participated in to prepare himself for testifying in said action, his appointment shall forthwith be revoked, and he shall be allowed no compensation as an expert in said action; provided, that he shall not thereby be prevented from testifying as a witness."

The bill is said to be based on a measure introduced into the Minnesota Legislature. It does not provide for experts in civil cases. The committee which has drafted it says that one of the worst stumbling-blocks is presented by the constitutional right to call any desired witness, in addition to the experts provided for by the bill. But it was thought that if a court were authorized to appoint a fixed number of expert witnesses, they would be unprejudiced, and the effect of their evidence would probably outweigh any partisan expert testimony that might be offered.

We are inclined to think that the committee is mistaken, not in this prediction, but in making the suggestion that the right to call other witnesses should be regarded as a stumbling-block. No doubt it would shorten trials to limit the number of witnesses, but the testimony of state experts would lose much of its weight if they alone were allowed to testify. An expert's weight with a juryman, as with any one else, comes from his impartiality and his reputation, and the fact that the matters as to which he testifies are matters about which the testimony of only such as he is worth anything. If two or three perfectly impartial chemists testify that a human stomach is found to contain a quantity of poison amply sufficient to produce death, the testimony of two or three other hirelings for the defence that it does not, would probably strengthen the impression produced by the judicial testimony. On the other hand, if the defence were precluded from calling additional witnesses, juries would probably often acquit because such a rule would violate the natural sense of justice. That a man tried for his life should be prevented by an iron-clad rule from producing any testimony he pleases that is not plainly a waste of time, would be manifestly oppressive. It is for this reason that the constitutional right exists.

The provisions of the bill requiring proof that the expert has not talked about his testimony, or his scientific preparations to testify, or the case, we look upon as a serious defect. It would wholly exclude the most enlightened and intelligent class of experts. When such a case arises as the Fleming trial, all scientific men whose opinion is worth having talk about it, and express opinions about it, just as intelligent lawyers and laymen do. Such conversations and opinions do not necessarily disqualify them or render them biassed. If they have formed an opinion which cannot be changed by evidence, then they are unfit; but the more intelligent and capable they are, the less likely are they to be governed by preconceptions. These provisions seem to be based on the idea that an expert witness is a juryman. But, as appears by the bill itself, he is not anything of the kind. He is merely a higher kind of witness. An ordinary witness testifies to simple facts —"I saw this," "I heard that," etc. An expert witness testifies mainly to matters of opinion, inference, and special experience—"This signature is in the defendant's handwriting," "This man died of tetanus," etc. But a witness, though he may be cross-examined as to what he has said about the case, to test his veracity, is not disqualified by having talked or expressed opinions about it. In fact it is usually because he has done both that he is summoned as a witness.

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It is bad enough to have jurymen disqualified by merely talking or expressing opinions, but in their case there is at least the ground for the rule that they are triers. But witnesses are not triers.

These provisions would defeat the end of the bill, and why they have been introduced we do not know.

MR. BALFOUR'S PROMISE TO IRELAND.

DUBLIN, May 28, 1897.

One strong argument for home rule for Ireland is the failure of British parties when in power to carry out their professions concerning that country when out of or entering on office—"Castle rule to be abolished," "simultaneity to be established"; thus and otherwise "home rule to be killed with kindness." But years pass over and nothing is accomplished, and, as in the lines quoted from Coleridge by Mr. Morley in this connection:

"Idle hope
And dire remembrance interlope
To vex the feverish slumbers of the mind;
The bubble floats before, the spectre stalks behind."

At the beginning of this year we were promised at least an efficient board for the advancement and encouragement of agriculture. Government having thus oiled the wheels of the legislative machine through the early days of the session, the scheme was introduced by the Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Gerald Balfour, a few weeks ago. It was received with contempt by the Nationalist members, with no special favor by any party, and has been withdrawn. The session will close without any important legislation being passed for Ireland. Not only so, but Government had, despite the protests of many of its own supporters, steadily refused to grant Ireland those subventions in relief of the agricultural interests which had been extended to Great Britain, and which, if conceded to Ireland in the same proportion as to Great Britain, would amount to about £700,000 per annum.

The policy of such subventions from imperial funds—a policy increasingly followed of late years—appears to many most objectionable. It tends to lessen responsibility and incentives to economy in the management of local affairs, and to encourage administrative extravagance and an unmanning dependence on centralized authority. It were better, on every account, if the Chancellor of the Exchequer allowed taxpayers to keep more for their own and local affairs, instead of which he extorts from all to give back to some. This course, pursued as it has latterly been, will lead, though by a different road, to demoralizing results similar to those which flow from the protective tariffs of other countries. But this is beside the present question. Ireland is entitled to her proportionate share of such subventions while they are going. Nothing has been accomplished for Ireland. Her share of the agricultural relief subvention had been refused; and a new commission is to be appointed to overhaul and depreciate the decision arrived at by eleven out of thirteen of the members of a royal commission, which decided that Ireland is overtaxed to at least the extent of £2,750,000 per annum.

Under these circumstances, Mr. Arthur Balfour, this day week, in withdrawing his brother's agricultural board bill, made a statement that has since given Irish politicians enough to think and talk about. Acknowledging "that both the machinery for administering county government and the poor-law in Ireland belong to a class of political machinery which we have rejected both in England and Scotland," and that "the party, or a great majority of the party, to which I belong have long pledged themselves to reform in Ireland," he declared that next session "we propose to place both the poor-law administration and the county administration upon a broad, popular basis." The difficulty, in his view, as to such reform hitherto has been that "the circumstances of Ireland are such that if you were to leave the incidence of rates in Ireland where they are, and simply to extend local government on the model of England and Scotland, you would necessarily cause much and possibly just alarm in the breasts of all those who are associated with the system of the land laws." This difficulty he proposes to surmount by applying the Irish proportion of the agricultural relief subvention so as largely to relieve the landlords from the possible results of the extravagance or misrule of popularly elected local bodies.

At present the landlords pay half the poor-rate. They are in country districts (not in towns) to be relieved by Government of this charge, amounting to some £250,000 per annum. The tenants, on the other hand, are to be relieved of half the cost of making and repairing roads (and other necessary county work), known as "county cess," equivalent to about £400,000 per annum. On lands in their own occupation the landlords will reap some £50,000 per annum on the same account. Upon the whole, therefore, the landlords, numbering perhaps 50,000, will gain by the arrangement £300,000 per annum, and the tenants, numbering 500,000, £400,000 per annum. Seeing that 300 landlords own one-third of the country, a considerable bribe is offered to that number of persons, the most influential leaders of the Unionist party in Ireland, to fall in with the arrangement. It is understood that these proportions are to be fixed payments on the basis of present poor-rate and county cess; that in so far as the rates to be levied by popular bodies exceed or fall below present amounts, the additional burden will devolve upon, or increased economy will benefit, the mass of the rate-payers. The proportion of lands held by landlords in their own occupation is so small that they are not likely to be materially affected by the incidence of local taxation. We are about to have applied another of those curious and complicated arrangements which already enmesh almost every relation of life in Ireland, by which it is sought to control, safeguard, or circumvent the free flow and influence of public opinion.

Mr. Arthur Balfour made his statement in sympathetic terms, and all parties for the moment appeared pleased. The Government, by endorsing this heavy bill at nine months, escapes the odium of past defalcations. The Unionists believe the Home-Rulers are dished. The Home-Rulers regard county government as but a step to home rule. The tenants are pleased at the prospect of being relieved of £400,000 a year, and of having the government of the counties in their own hands. The landlords appear delighted. "After all," humorously suggests Mr. Davitt, "the settlement of the home-rule question is but a sum in proportion: If £300,000 reconciles the Irish Unionists to county government, what sum will it take to reconcile them to national government?"

Among the thoughtful there is satisfaction but no enthusiasm. This promise will not affect, as perhaps Mr. Balfour hoped it might, Irish indifference to the Diamond Jubilee. County government has long been promised. This £700,000 is due since last year. Irishmen practically agree that £2,750,000 per annum is further owing on the over-taxation account. Besides, our experiences of ministerial promises do not encourage confidence. Ministers are not altogether free agents. They have to consider their own supporters; and among the supporters of the present ministry the Irish ascendancy party, always bent upon whittling down Irish popular reforms, is perhaps the most powerful section. They have to deal with the House of Lords. They are dependent upon British opinion, notoriously fickle in relation to Irish affairs. Promises as positive concerning the establishment of local government were made by the Conservative ministry in 1886; made but to be broken by Mr. Balfour, concerning the administration of the coercion act in 1887; made but to be broken by him concerning the establishment of a Catholic University in 1889. It behooves us to bear in mind *Polonius's* advice: "Reserve thy judgment." In this spirit the Irish parliamentary party has passed a series of resolutions. They reiterate their conviction that home rule is the only satisfactory policy. They claim for Ireland equal rights with Great Britain in the management of local affairs; they "note with satisfaction that the ministerial statement seems to foreshadow such a measure"; they regard the promised money grant as "a simple act of justice which cannot affect the still unsettled question of over-taxation"; and finally declare: "In view and because we believe it is for the interest of the Irish rural masses to buy even at a great price their local freedom, we are ready to meet in a fair and liberal spirit pecuniary proposals which, we are bound to declare, will, in our opinion, transfer to the landlords an entirely disproportionate share of relief."

One tendency of the proposed scheme is clearly objectionable. It would lessen the responsibilities and still further isolate the position of the landlord class, on whose hearty coöperation and sympathy with the people so much of the happiness of Ireland depends, until peasant proprietary becomes the rule instead of the exception. D. B.

THE TWO SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1897.

I think it is in the preface to the second edition of 'Modern Painters' that Mr. Ruskin, saying a great deal with which I cannot agree, gives utterance to a truth that helps one to understand the failure of the Paris Salons: a failure, year by year, destined to grow more apparent. "The skill of the artist and the perfection of his art are never proved until both are forgotten"—here you have the clue to a problem otherwise so inexplicable. For, as you walk through the interminable galleries at the Champs-Élysées and the Champ de Mars, your wonder is that, though on every side is overwhelming evidence of skill, there should be few pictures with power to interest or

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impress you; while, as a fact, it is the very evidence of skill that is the reason of your indifference. In the London gallery you may be irritated by the clumsiness or sheer ignorance of the craftsman, but in Paris there is no denying his ability, his knowledge, his facility. And the greater the cleverness of the painter, the more you miss the inspiration of the artist. The trouble is that, to-day, every one paints.

It is inevitable that this array of useless skill should be more keenly felt at the Champs-Élysées, where it does not lead even to experiment: the gay adventurer is at least amusing. I had heard that, because already the destruction of the Palais de l'Industrie had begun, there were fewer rooms opened than usual. But, though I found a change in the general arrangement, the number of pictures seemed to me no less appalling. And the average of excellence, I must admit, is as high. For scholarly drawing and technique, where indeed are men to excel Bouguereau and Bonnat, and Benjamin Constant, and Jean Paul Laurens? And where pictures that make less appeal to those special emotions which it is within the province of art to arouse? I do not know that, with Mr. Ruskin, I should test the greatness of a painting by the readiness of its admirers to turn from it with the praise of God in their hearts. But there is a pleasure which it is the function of the artist to give—the pleasure that we feel when we look at the portraits of Velasquez, the golden myths of Titian, the pastorals of Corot. Before the conventional frigidities of the Salons, however, we are quite passive.

Take this year's canvas by M. Laurens as a typical example, "Le Lauraguais," and you could not have a better for the purpose. It is a huge landscape, and is intended, I suppose, to decorate some state or municipal building. You see it at once as you go in the first large room; there before you stretch broad fields, brown and furrowed where the ploughs, drawn by great oxen, have passed across them; in the middle distance a low dip of green and line of willows show where a stream flows; and beyond, rise gently sloping downs, bare save where one tree throws a cool dark shadow. It is just such a scene as you have looked upon often from the window of the railway carriage on your journey through France, though in the painting the peasants wear an unfamiliar mediæval dress; and it is so like nature that you could fancy yourself stepping straight into the fields to meet the oxen—as real, in its way, as the coins Rembrandt's pupils painted on the floor of the studio, as the curtain that Apelles—was it not?—was asked to draw back that his picture might be seen. But of the poetry, the romance, the mystery that Nature holds in abundance for the artist there is not a suggestion; not a trace of the beauty into which he should convert the crudities of actual fact. You might as well hope to decorate your walls with that view from the carriage window, could it be transported bodily, as with this quite marvellously painted facsimile. It is a relief to leave it for the small, quiet, low-toned landscapes by Pointelin—impressions as sad and haunting as certain descriptive lines by Verlaine. M. Pointelin and M. Fantin-Latour, M. Harpignies and M. Français again, as so often before, are the men who make the old Salon worth the fatigue of a visit; and, in a lesser degree, M. Henner and M. Henri Martin. The canvases of several of the American exhibitors, too, Mr. Picknell's landscape, Mr. Bridgman's marine, Mr. Loeb's portrait, are serious and workmanlike, though I had to regret the absence of Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Bisbing.

I am not sure that there is not as much wasted cleverness, as much ill-directed skill at the Champ de Mars. But here it is less stolidly conventional, more daringly independent; here the Romanticist's doctrine of individuality survives in a measure—the man who has no individuality of his own to cultivate, borrowing his neighbor's in preference to the worn-out academic formulas against which Romanticism was the protest. Unfortunately this does not mean that the independent understands better than the conservative the art of making a picture. "If your subject is only a pigsty, dignify it," was Crome's counsel to his son. But the dignity, or whatever you may choose to call that which marks the difference between the work of genius and the accomplished painting, is of all qualities the most elusive. There are painters in the new Salon who fail, as M. Laurens fails, from excess of realism, from the fidelity with which they copy nature. I was fairly blinded by a wide expanse of blue sea by M. Montenard, and a picture was meant to please, not to hurt the eyes. I have never in the flesh seen peasants as coarse, as brutal, as revolting in their "joys" as those who disport themselves lifesize in M. Fourié's "Poèmes des Champs"—there is irony in the title! I have brought away with me a dreadful memory of an arrangement of hands—the most difficult things in the world to paint—hideous, vulgar, repulsive hands all lifted upward to grasp I know not what, for I had not the courage to wait and puzzle out the allegory. Even M. Tissot has allowed religious zeal to do away with all sense of proportion, and in showing on a colossal canvas the reception given to the Pope's Legate by the Patriarch of Jerusalem, he has respectfully given every ecclesiastical detail at the sacrifice of the decorative stateliness and splendor that alone could warrant so bold a venture in paint. Think of what Veronese would have made of such a ceremonial! But, perhaps, nowhere is one as much disappointed by the lack of just the "little more" which means everything, as in a portrait group by M. Simon. It is, without question, one of the strongest pictures in the collection. The gray-haired mother and her five children, gathered together in their own sitting-room, are arranged with not a little of the simple straightforwardness of the old Dutch Regent pictures, and are painted with much vigor and fluency. But one thinks of that saying of Crome's—Whatever your subject, dignify it. Nowadays, when the camera can supply us with the accurate likeness, pictorial dignity is all the more to be insisted upon from the portrait painter.

I have taken these few examples to illustrate the general character of the collection. They are selected at random. The work of Cottet, of Thaulow, of Helleu, among many, would have served me as well. But, of course, there are exceptions here, as at the Champs-Élysées—exceptions that are both more numerous and more interesting in themselves. The tender, melancholy landscapes by M. Cazin and M. Billotte vary little with the years, but they are always restful, always so peaceful and serene that one would as soon complain of the daily recurrence of twilight as of their monotony. Nor do the gray towns and streets of M. Raffaëlli lose their charm with repetition. The portraits are many and admirable, from M. Boldini's sprightly vivacious "M. le Comte Robert de Montesquiou," all in gray and gazing fondly on the lapis-lazuli handle of his cane—the same elegant person Mr. Whistler painted a year or two ago—to M. Blanche's more staid but no less successful family group; from M. Besnard's problems of light to M. Aman-Jean's decorative fantasies; mere reëchoes these of his earlier designs, and fainter, feebler, one cannot but feel, as many an echo proves. In one, a triptych, the woman he has so frequently painted fills the central panel, a lake curving and glades opening in beautiful lines behind her, while on either side are figures of Poetry and Beauty; but the Beauty, thin as Botticelli's Venus, is clumsy in form, her face deliberately ugly—a challenge, as it were—and the attendant peacocks press against her with the awkward heaviness of stuffed birds. Mannerisms have developed into affectations, for the moment; the old source of inspiration seems to have run dry. Mr. Whistler, Mr. Sargent, and Mr. Dannat are not represented. But Mr. Alexander shows several characteristic portraits of women, one, which he calls "Peonies," a very beautiful arrangement of a delightfully painted figured green gown and a great bowl of rose-colored blossoms. He has also attempted a more elaborate composition in his "Isabella with the Pot of Basil"; and if the literary demands of the subject seem to have bewildered him, in this he has many great men to keep him company. Mr. Humphreys Johnston's portrait is another to be noted, though his finest work this spring is to be seen in his sympathetic poetic studies of the long, clear nights and the strange dawns and twilights of a northern summer. The tenderness with which he has rendered the subtlest tones of the fjord is a contrast, indeed, to the violence—the first outbreak, and, I hope, the last—of Mr. Alexander Harrison in his records of fiery sunset and garish light, which, if actually seen by him, should have been discreetly forgotten. I ought, at least, to mention that Mr. Guthrie and Mr. Walton do credit to the Glasgow School, their portraits calling for a more detailed description than is here possible. Were space not a consideration, I should also wish to speak of the contributions of M. Lhermitte, M. Zorn, and M. Gandara.

I have said nothing as yet of M. Carrière's "Crucifixion," which has little in common with the other pictures hung, but which to me is by far the most impressive, the most memorable. As a rule, in the religious subjects of the Salons, one recognizes the painter's bid for the *réclame* that M. Béraud made fashionable. But M. Carrière's choice you feel to be as genuine as that of the man who decorated the mediæval church and cloister. Again, there are times when the curious mist or haze with which M. Carrière envelops his compositions is distinctly annoying. I remember I was ready to consider it a tiresome trick, a morbid fancy, when I saw a collection of his work at the Salon de l'Art Nouveau. But nothing could be more appropriate to the tragedy he has now depicted. From out the vague shadows looms the

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pale figure on the cross, the Man of Sorrows in his agony, and below, the poor martyred mother, hands clasped in her utter despair. All other detail is lost in the strange, mysterious atmosphere, but none other is needed; the treatment is as tragic as the theme. Contrast this with M. Bouguereau's "Crucifixion" in the Champs-Élysées, the Christ as neatly correct and frigid as the same artist's Venus into whom a little Cupid has just stuck a dexterous arrow.

I regret that the limits of an article prevent my writing of the sculpture at length, for the Champ de Mars contains fine examples of M. Rodin—above all, a group of "Love and Psyche" that is proof of how much emotion, how much passion really can be expressed by beauty of form, by exquisiteness of design; and also a detail of a monument to the dead by M. Bartholomé, and basreliefs by M. Meunier and M. Charpentier. While at the Champs-Élysées, you will find Mr. MacMonnies's gay, graceful fountain for Prospect Park and his doors for the Library at Washington, which, I think, must be seen in their place, and not isolated as in the court of the Palais de l'Industrie, before one can judge of their effect. M. Frémiet, I am afraid, in seeking inspiration in the Stone Age, has hampered himself with an unfamiliar and unsympathetic subject. But I like M. Falguière's eager poet mounted on Pegasus.

There is much good work among the drawings and prints. At the Champ de Mars a room has been set aside for M. Boutet de Monvel's illustrations. The lithographs by M. Lunois, M. Blanche, M. Carrière, M. Jeanniot, among others, point to the enormous interest now taken in the art of lithography and the variety of its technical resources. N. N.

Correspondence.

DEMOCRACY DISTRUSTING ITSELF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The loss of faith in the people by the people has just been signally shown by the endorsement which the action of the recent constitutional convention of Delaware, in promulgating the new constitution, has received from the better people of the State.

In the 'American Commonwealth' (2d edition, vol. i., p. 418) Bryce says: "The invariable practice has been, since Kentucky adopted her constitution in 1792, for the convention elected by the voters to submit the draft constitution framed by it to the citizens of the State at large, who vote upon it yes or no." "In no State would the idea of allowing a convention to enact a constitution as a sovereign body be now entertained."

Bryce is in error in stating that the "invariable practice" has been to submit the draft constitution, for the expiring constitution of Delaware was promulgated in 1831. The striking and significant fact remains, however, that where a choice lay between government by an aristocracy (the constitutional government) and government by a democracy (the people voting upon the draft constitution), and when both the philosophy of constitutions and an almost invariable practice of conventions favored submission, the great majority of the better people gladly forewent their sovereignty and endorsed the act of the aristocracy in convention assembled in promulgating the constitution.

"I have profound faith in the people themselves," said an intelligent citizen of Dover, "but the people led by the politicians are a herd of wild beasts." The constitution is non-partisan, the constitution is good—altogether too good for the politician. Hence the promulgation. W. L. Gooding.

Dover, Del., June 5, 1897.

WANTED: A NEW PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was impressed by your editorial, "Issues in Search of a Party," as well as by the "feelers" put out by two or three of your correspondents lately with reference to a new party. But why are we content with mere talk instead of acting? Is there anything in the way of calling a convention to meet, say in September, of those who are tired of the present anomalous situation, and wish, as in the old days of '60, to have a definite list of issues on which they are united?

As the basis of such a list I take leave to suggest the following items in the order of their importance:

1. Civil-Service Reform.
2. Real Money.
3. Economical Government.
4. Low Tariff.

Is not the time as ripe for the birth of a party with ideas as it was in '54?

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

Gouverneur, N. Y., June 5, 1897.

GREECE AND CRETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have neither the time nor the disposition to enter into a controversy at length on the question of the conduct of the Greeks in regard to Crete, but I must insist, in any consideration of the question, on dividing sharply the Greek people from the demagogues who, for most of the time since I have known the country, have misgoverned it, and have now brought on it what, with a people of less character and tenacity, would be definitive and irretrievable ruin. With the Greek common people I have great sympathy, though it is impossible to conceal the fact that the form of government which has fallen to their lot is one which has proved a failure. It is necessary to have lived in Athens, and have followed the actions of the various ministries for the past twenty years, as I have been more or less obliged to, to be able to distinguish between what the nation is responsible for and what the politicians impose on it. Mr. Bikelas, as a patriotic Greek, may not be able to make the distinction, even now that he sees the ruin wrought on his country, but I think that the general public must now understand it. I will try to make it clearer.

But first let me reply to the impeachment of my statement that "not an inch of Greek territory has been won by Greek effort." The simple fact is, that Greece was so thoroughly conquered by the Sultan and his chief vassal, the Pasha of Egypt (who was a Turkish functionary), that Navarino was fought as the indirect consequence of the Powers determining to prevent the Sultan from carrying out his intention of deporting the Christian population of the Peloponnesus, and putting a Mussulman population in their place. If Mr. Bikelas would show on the map what part of Greece the Greeks held in secure possession at that moment, I should be wiser than I am. But my object in that statement was not to depreciate the great heroism and fortitude of the Greek people at that crisis, but to show that all that Greece has was given it by the action of the Christian Powers of Europe, and that Greece was, in fact, the creation of European diplomacy, and was, in fact, constituted as a nation by England, Russia, and France, with their guarantee as to frontiers and immunity from Turkish reconquest. Under these circumstances she should have considered herself under an obligation not to create embarrassments for the Powers to which she owed her existence.

The first addition to Greek territory, that of the Ionian Islands, was the gift of England; the next, Thessaly, that of the Powers collectively. In 1877-'78 a convention was concluded between the Czar and the King of Greece, which provided that if the Greek Army should cross the frontier before a certain period in the Russian march on Constantinople, the claims of Greece should be considered in the settlement and treaty of peace. At the appointed time not a regiment was ready to cross the frontier, and the Czar gave the King three months more, and at the expiration of this term nothing was ready, and Greece lost her chance. Seeing that Greece was coming off empty-handed, the "committees," as the unofficial action of the Government is styled, collected hastily a few hundred men and sent them into Epirus, landing them without order or resources at Aghia Saranda, opposite Corfu, where we happened to be staying at the time, and where they, with a few exceptions, had their throats cut by the Epirotes, without resistance or possibility of escape, for the steamers which landed them left them there helpless. From the island of Corfu one could with a glass see the slaughter. At a later period the Powers induced Turkey to yield Thessaly and a strip of Epirus according to the Treaty of Berlin as compensation to Greece for keeping quiet! In 1886 the late Prime Minister Delyanni made a great demonstration on the Macedonian frontier, just as he did last month, threatening invasion and conflagration if some concessions were not made to Greece. There was three days' fighting, and then the blockade of Piræus stopped the tragedy, which cost the lives of seven to ten thousand Greeks, mainly from the severity of the season and the absolute want of preparation for campaigning. When the fighting was stopped by Tricoupi, who had succeeded Delyanni, the Turkish general-in-chief had his orders to march on Athens if on another day the attacks of the Greeks were renewed. I was Tricoupi's negotiator during the semi-diplomatic negotiations which prevented the invasions, and the details will be found in the *Times* correspondence of April and May, 1886. I was, for that, insulted in the streets of Athens, because "I had prevented the Greeks from going to Constantinople." It was the pressure of the Powers which then prevented the Turks from invading Thessaly as they have now done, and then the country was even less prepared for war than now, and the Turkish Army would have been in Athens, in all probability, in a fortnight. Greece is therefore a Power not only created by the Powers, but protected by them, and has not all the moral or legal

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rights, as Mr. Bikelas thinks, of an independent Power. Of this fact, as well as of the imbecility of his Government, he is probably now convinced. This is the record of the conquests of the Greek territory by Greek arms.

But if Greece desired to make war on Turkey for the liberation of the Greek populations in Crete or elsewhere, she had undoubtedly a way to do so, if she chose to accept the consequences of defiance of the Powers. But international law points out the legal course, which was to declare war on Turkey and send troops over to Crete to carry it on. This would have put the Powers in the alternative of interfering with the legal rights of Greece, in which case they would have had all the public opinion of Europe against them, or compelling Turkey to make some concession. The Greek violation of international law was in invading a so-called friendly state while pretending to maintain amicable relations. Turkey, being also a protected Power, was restrained by the Powers from declaring war on Greece until the invasion of Macedonia took place, when it was impossible to prevent that war without making war. The Delyanni ministry took the evasive and (internationally speaking) cowardly course of making war on the Sultan behind the protection of the Powers, hoping to escape the consequences. Tricoupi would have declared war, and sent the fleet straight to the Dardanelles, raised all the islands, and, no doubt, would have divided the Powers and secured the sympathy of liberal Europe. But he knew what international law was, and would have followed it, and I for one would have supported him.

Mr. Bikelas utterly misrepresents what I wrote about the "infamous treason" of Bulgaris in 1869. The offer of A'ali Pasha was of a principality with a Prince of the Cretans' own choosing, *and any other conditions* except nominal independence of the Sultan. The Greek Government naturally advised the rejection, and exerted all its moral pressure on the Cretans, through their families in refuge in Greece, and the Russian Government even declared that if they refused the offers of A'ali Pasha, they were certain of annexation to Greece. So far as the Greek Government (then under Comoundouros and Tricoupi) was concerned, this was perfectly correct, and it is sheer misrepresentation in Mr. Bikelas to travesty my statement as he does, for the term "infamous treason" was applied not to advising the Cretans to reject A'ali's propositions, but to the abandonment of the Cretans afterwards when it suited Russia to give Turkey a breathing space, and letting them go back to their former condition without a stipulation in their favor. The Greek Government did not "advise the Cretans to yield"—they simply withdrew all support, and deliberately suffocated the insurrection. This was the infamy, of which Russia and the Greek Government may divide the responsibility as they like. The Greek Government was responsible for the treachery, because Russia had no authority in the matter. The King dismissed the Comoundouros ministry, in violation of the Constitution, because Comoundouros would not obey Russia, and called Bulgaris to the Government because he *would*. Greece lost all the exertions made through three years to sustain the movement, and Crete lost everything. But even then Russia would have supported Crete if the Greeks had been content to let the insurrection which was preparing in the Balkans come under the control of Russia, *i. e.*, become a Slavic movement. Greece wanted to control everything, and Comoundouros refused the Russian help on the terms offered. It was very short-sighted policy, but the Greeks determined to go to Constantinople and lost everything. It was a mistaken policy, but honest; the treason was in the subsequent conduct of the Bulgaris ministry, and this Mr. Bikelas must have understood as my meaning, for he understands English.

I have a pile of correspondence on my desk from friends in Greece, and the tenor of it all is curses and charges of treason against the King and Delyanni, with proofs that the ministry never intended war and had made no real preparations for it. They hoped to frighten the Powers into getting some territory for Greece, and, as in 1886, waved the firebrand and threatened to set Europe in a flame, but they had neither prepared arms, tents, food, nor ammunition for a serious campaign, and the commands were given to get *kudos* for the King, the Crown Prince, and Delyanni. The people took it in earnest, paid for it in their blood, and now they curse the authors of the disaster. Can any friend of Crete, which I am, and always have been (and I know the Cretans better than Mr. Bikelas does), desire to see them pass under a government capable of the insanity of 1886 and 1897? Is that a fate to wish the Cretans—bankruptcy, defeat, and ruin?

But there is another important consideration which reflects on the conduct of the Greek Government. The Powers had, after a most perilous conflict of influences, succeeded in stopping the massacres of the Christians in Turkey, and in establishing a *modus vivendi*, with the beginning of a general, if slow, reform of Turkish administration. The action of Greece has set Turkey on her feet again, and given the Sultan a new lease of power and self-confidence. The alternative of a Greek success in this critical moment would have been to awake anew all the Mussulman fanaticism, and repeat the horrors of Armenia over and over again. The Greek Government, evidently, meant to profit by this danger to force the Powers to bribe it to keep quiet, for it is now well known that there had been no serious preparations for war. If this meets the conception of a serious and trustworthy government, in the mind of Mr. Bikelas, I am sorry for the Greeks, for he is one of the most reasonable men of his nation whom I know.

As to the responsibility of Greece for the misfortunes of Crete, I can only say that in the insurrection of 1866, as in those following, with which I have been mostly in close touch, the rising has been invariably provoked by Greek agencies. This is, under the circumstances, natural, and, to a certain extent, excusable; but a serious people does not provoke insurrection without some chance of success, and the only hope of success in Crete was through the action of the Powers, which the Greeks, as now, tried to force, not to assist.—Yours truly,

W. J. S.

Rome, May 20, 1897.

LITERATURE OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading Prof. Arber's intensely interesting 'Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, 1606-1623,' I visited our Cathedral Library at Lincoln, and was much pleased to find there a copy of George Johnson's 'Discourse of some Troubles and Excommunications in the banished English Church at Amsterdam' (Amsterdam), 1603, 4to, quite perfect up to its abrupt ending, on p. 214, as described by Prof. Arber on p. 108 of his 'Story.' This, therefore, makes the *third* known copy.

There is also a copy of the Rev. John Smyth's 'Character of the Beast,' etc., 1609, 4to (Arber, 139), bound up with other pamphlets, but I fear it is wanting a page or two, as it ends on p. 68 with the catchword "Faith."

I hope shortly to be able to make a search through the visitation records of Bishops Wickham, Chaderton, and Barlow (1584-1614), and possibly find some entry respecting the Rev. John Smith, preacher of the City of Lincoln, the Se-Baptist (Arber 131-140).—I am, sir, yours faithfully,

J. Clare Hudson,
Canon of Lincoln and Co-Editor of *Lincolnshire N. and Q.*

Thornton Vicarage, Horncastle, May 27, 1897.

BY IN NEW ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have heard this in New England in conversation: The farmer's wife put on the table pudding and milk for supper. The hired man did not take hold. "You don't seem to set much *by* pudding and milk," said she. "Oh, yes," he said, "I could set *by* it all day, but I would not eat it for supper."

"You have gone *by* your time," in the sense of gone beyond; "the dog *by* the barn, or the cow *by* the rock, the house *by* the hill or *by* the bridge," are in common use. So are "*By* the looks of the clouds it will rain before they get *by*"; "He can do better *by* you than that," *i. e.*, can give you more for it; "He did poorly *by* his boys"—left them little; "I lost a thousand dollars *by* him"; "The hour was *by* before he came." "*By* all odds he will be here *by* that time and will stand *by* me"; "Side pork will stand *by* the ribs," meaning that it has a food-staying power. P. J. Farnsworth.

Clinton, Iowa, May 28, 1897.

DR. JOHNSON SELF-CRITICIZED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the authority of Dr. Johnson, if we may credit Boswell, "almost all his *Ramblers* were written just as they were wanted for the press: . . . he sent a certain portion of the copy of an essay, and wrote the remainder while the former part of it was printing." And again professedly reporting information derived from the same source, Boswell states that "many of these discourses, which we should suppose had been laboured with all the slow attention of literary leisure, were written in haste, as the moment pressed, without even being read over, by him, before they were printed."

Of the *Rambler*, which originally came out in semi-weekly numbers, and ran from March 20, 1750, to March 14, 1752, the first impression issued in volumes was published immediately after the work, as a periodical, was completed.

Its piecemeal edition, though interesting

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as an illustration of Dr. Johnson's unstudied style, is invested with twofold interest by the fact that, on referring to his revision of it, seen in its book-form, we are enabled to learn in what respects he considered his impromptuary deliverances to be susceptible of emendation. This being the case, the following extracts from the *Rambler* in the rough and the *Rambler* as polished for permanence may be not unacceptable. The superfluous capitals are not reproduced, and the spelling is modernized.

NUMBER 1, pp. 6.

"Judgment was wearied with the inextricable perplexity of being forced upon choice, where there was often no motive to preference."	"Judgment was wearied with the perplexity of being forced upon choice, when there was no motive to preference."
"The epic writers, indeed, have found the proemial part of the poem such an addition to their laborious undertaking," etc.	"The epic writers have found the proemial part of the poem such an addition to their undertaking," etc.
"But this solemn repetition has been hitherto the peculiar distinction of heroic poetry, and has never been legally extended to the lower orders of literature, and seems," etc.	"But this solemn repetition is hitherto the peculiar distinction of heroic poetry; it has never been legally extended to the lower orders of literature, but seems," etc.
"The rules which long observation of the injudicious use of this prerogative suggested to Horace," etc.	"The rules which the injudicious use of this prerogative suggested to Horace," etc.
"Yet, though this precept has been long received, both from regard to the authority of him that delivered it, and its conformity to the general opinion of the world, there have been some, as well since as before his time, who have thought it no deviation from modesty," etc.	"This precept has been long received, both from regard to the authority of Horace, and its conformity to the general opinion of the world; yet there have been always some that thought it no deviation from modesty," etc.
"That the case of an author is parallel will scarcely be granted; because he necessarily discovers the degree of his merit to the judges when he solicits their suffrages. But it should be remembered that, unless his judges be prejudiced in his favour, they will not be persuaded to hear the cause."	"That the case of an author is parallel will scarcely be granted; because he necessarily discovers the degree of his merit to his judges, when he appears at his trial. But it should be remembered that, unless his judges are inclined to favour him, they will hardly be persuaded to hear the cause."
"In love, the state which fills the heart with a degree of solicitude next that of an author, it has been held for a maxim, that success is more easily obtained by indirect and concealed approaches."	"In love, the state which fills the heart with a degree of solicitude next that of an author, it has been held a maxim, that success is most easily obtained by indirect and unperceived approaches."
"The artifices . . . are to be looked upon with more indulgence, as they result from complicated passions, and are incited at once by the two great movers of the human mind, the desire of good and the fear of evil. For who can wonder that, thus allured on one side, and frightened on the other, some men should endeavour," etc.	"The artifices . . . are to be looked upon with more indulgence, as they are incited at once by the two great movers of the human mind, the desire of good and the fear of evil. For who can wonder that, allured on one side, and frightened on the other, some should endeavour," etc.
"Nor is the prospect less likely to ease the doubts of the cautious and allay the terrors of the fearful."	"Nor is the prospect less likely to ease the doubts of the cautious and the terrors of the fearful."
"He that is afraid of laying out too much time upon an experiment of which he fears the event," etc.	"He that would fear to lay out too much time upon an experiment of which he knows not the event," etc.
"He may, by attending the remarks which every paper will produce, inform himself of his mistakes, rectify his opinions, and extend his views. If he suspects that he may, with too little premeditation, entangle himself in an unwieldy subject, he may quit it," etc.	"He may, by attending the remarks which every paper will produce, rectify his opinions. If he should, with too little premeditation, encumber himself by any unwieldy subject, he can quit it," etc.

Interspersed among the alterations noted above there are no fewer than eighteen others. Most of them consist of verbal changes; but there are also several omissions of words, numbering from one to six.

The principal lesson to be learned from the foregoing extracts, in their corrected form, is the elimination of surplusage. At the same time, mere handful as they are, they suffice to convey some slight idea of the difference between the English of a century and a half ago and that now current. *Is hitherto* and *by attending the remarks* have become obsolete; and *discover*, in the sense of "disclose" or "reveal," has passed away within living memory.

One cannot choose but suppose that Dr. Johnson, in commencing the *Rambler*, strove to do his best. When it was once fairly launched, he, indeed, now and then abated something of his painstaking; and yet, its monotonous formality laid out of the question, it is rarely blemished by defects other than such as are inevitable to hasty execution. Almost as soon, however, as it was off his hands, he set about improving it throughout, and that in what he deemed to be a sufficiently thoroughgoing manner. To account for this does not seem difficult. Of its substantial excellence he very warrantably entertained no doubt. But there was that in it, a lack of finish, with which, as we have abundant evidence, he was far from being satisfied. For, as was the case with its introduction, according to what has been shown, so, to its very end, few consecutive sentences, when he came to view the work as a whole, approved themselves, in point of expression, to his judgment, as quite befitting literature that could be expected to live. He must, we are therefore to infer, have felt convinced that, if it were attentively elaborated afresh, with respect to minutiæ, to live would be its desert and its destiny. While it was circumstanced much like a newspaper, a thing to be skimmed cursorily and then thrown aside and neglected or forgotten, its style was of subordinate importance; but, if presented as a book, and that the production of a man who was already looked up to as a rhetorical model, its style was a matter which demanded its author's careful consideration. Hence, unquestionably, the industry with which he revised and chastised into an enduring classic what was at first put forth, in ephemeral six-paged driblets, to serve for graver entertainment on old-time Tuesdays and Saturdays. From weariness of the task, or for some other reason, a single retouching of the *Rambler* contented him, however, though it passed through ten editions before his death.

The object of this letter is practical. May not Dr. Johnson's dealings with his extemporary prolusions be utilized for educational purposes? Prefaced by directions for using it, a compilation containing passages similar to those which have been transcribed would, under a competent preceptor, surely be of service to students in English composition. And the compilation would be advantageously supplemented by excerpts of another character, that is to say, specimens of locutions which, though Dr. Johnson accepted them, are, at present, to be repudiated. Of the somewhat numerous class of such are, for example, "Every instance . . . has been studiously *collected*," "Men must not only be *persuaded* of their errors," "Contenting herself, thenceforth, *to shed* her influence from afar," "Those whom sorrow incapacitates *to enjoy* the pleasures of contemplation," "There is no doubt *but* many vegetables and animals have qualities that might be of great use," "A nation of naturalists is neither to be *hoped or* desired." Things like these are instructive; and especially so is it to observe that Dr. Johnson conceived he was amending "Criticism . . . is *to be ranked only* among the . . . instrumental arts," when he worsened it into "Criticism . . . is *only to be ranked*," etc.

Though, in nearly every page, Dr. Johnson has some expression which, either as being outworn or as being slipshod, looks to us peculiar, still, in one respect, he was hardly rivalled by any of his contemporaries. The precision with which, as a rule, he employed his immensely copious vocabulary is most noteworthy; and it has since been surpassed by none but the compeers of Coleridge and Lord Macaulay. Advance on it was long held, with unquestioning confidence, to be well-nigh impossible; an exaggeration of estimate, however, which is now out of date. Nevertheless, there are few, in these days of slovenly writing, whom scrutiny of the great lexicographer's nice distinctions has not much to teach. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, April 30, 1897.

Notes.

We read in the London *Academy* that Prof. W. I. Knapp of the University of Chicago, who has been living for some years in Norwich, England, preparing a Life of George Borrow, is now ready to give the three-volume work to the printer. Murray will publish it. Borrow's tracks in Spain had been formerly followed up; now the Norwich records have been called in to help discriminate between *Dichtung* and *Wahrheit* in 'Lavengro' and 'The Bible in Spain.'

J. B. Lippincott Co. will issue 'Picturesque Burma, Past and Present,' with numerous illustrations; and, in connection with J. M. Dent & Co., London, a 'Life of Wagner,' by Houston Stuart Chamberlain, with photogravures, facsimiles of scores, etc.

Prof. Paul Shorey of the University of Chicago has finished editing for the Students' Series of Latin Classics of Leach, Shewell & Sanborn the 'Odes and Epodes of Horace.' The same firm will issue directly 'Macbeth,' edited by Dr. J. M. Garnett of the Woman's College, Baltimore.

'Selected Letters of Cicero,' edited by Prof. Frank Frost Abbott of the University of Chicago, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

In the autumn we may expect from Dodd, Mead & Co. 'Constitutional Studies, State and Federal,' by Prof. James Schouler; the substance of lectures delivered at the Johns Hopkins University, 1893-'96.

The "Great Commanders Series" (D. Appleton & Co.) has reached the Life of General Grant, written by Gen. James Grant Wilson, the editor of the whole. It is a hard task to find much that is fresh when a subject has been worked over in so many forms as Grant's biography; but the author has succeeded in giving, within the moderate length to which the series is limited, an easy, flowing narrative, which touches all the leading points of the General's career, and supplies as much as the ordinary reader will demand. General Wilson has been fortunate in getting access to a series of letters from Grant to E. B. Washburne, which are really new material. They are full of character, and one wishes the series were much longer. The book is frankly eulogistic, the opposite of critical; but this will not be out of harmony with the popular taste. The tide of hero-worship is flowing strongly in these days of imposing dedications of monuments, and this biography will hit the humor of the time. On

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his military side, Grant had so much for an honest hero-worshipper to build on that even a critical reader will be glad to let himself drift with the popular current.

Mrs. John Hays Hammond's little book on the late troubles in the Transvaal, 'A Woman's Part in a Revolution' (Longmans), is an inconsiderable contribution to the history of those times, most significant in its unconscious vulgarity. Her comment, quoted from her diary, on the discovery of the Johannesburg letter among Jameson's effects, is: "Why in the name of all that is discreet and honorable didn't he eat it?" Every real friend of Mrs. Hammond would say the same of her book. The Uitlander leaders, in spite of their undoubted grievances and their hard treatment in Boer courts and prisons, have been as unfortunate in their apologists as in their laureates. Mr. Hammond, from all accounts, behaved bravely and honorably when in peril of his life; but his wife's endeavor to glorify him makes us intimate with such very bourgeois conspirators that it will be harder than ever to get any one to call them heroes —or even revolutionists.

'The Lyric Poems of Robert Herrick' has been added to the edition of the Lyric Poets published by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan). The selections, by Mr. Ernest Rhys, are well made, and the book is well printed and convenient for the pocket; but the editor has nothing new to say of Herrick. Indeed, it is fair to remark that Mr. Gosse, in his essays on poets of the seventeenth century, has had the last word on that whimsical character, unless some extraordinary discovery be made about him.

Mr. James Fenimore Cooper reprints, in an edition of three hundred copies (Rochester: George P. Humphrey), 'A Guide to the Wilderness [of Central New York],' published in 1810 by his greatgrandfather, Judge William Cooper, the founder of Cooperstown. The pamphlet deals with life in New York at the end of the last century, its hardships and adventures, and its possibilities of imperial expansion. To read of the days when bread failed, and the "root of wild leeks," milk, and maple syrup were famine food in this fertile State, puts a strain upon credence. "The quantity of leeks" some of these poor creatures had eaten "had such an effect upon their breath that they could be smelled at many paces distant, and when they came together it was like cattle that had been pastured in a garlic field!"

A recent addition to the swollen list of elementary treatises on economic science is an 'Introduction to the Study of Economics,' by C. J. Bullock, instructor in Cornell University (Silver, Burdett & Co.). A summary statement of the leading facts in the economic history of the United States is used to lead up to the consideration of our present problems. On the whole, the author appears to have succeeded very well in condensing the views and theories of a number of writers, and in drawing therefrom many valid inferences. While we do not see the need of more treatises of this description, we can fairly say that Mr. Bullock's treatment of his subject is intelligent and marked by moderation in statement.

'The Fertility of the Land,' by I. P. Roberts, Professor of Agriculture at Cornell University, is an excellent treatise for practical farmers, and is not without interest for all who "enjoy the fun of seeing things grow." The book is one of the "Rural Science Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey, and published by Macmillan Co.

On a larger scale is 'The Book of the Dairy,' translated from the German of Prof. W. Fleischmann by Messrs. C. M. Aikman and R. P. Wright, two professors of agriculture in Scotland (London: Blaikie & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.). This work is encyclopædic in its scope, but is better adapted to the requirements of experts than to those of farmers, and does not altogether meet American needs.

The first edition of 'Notes on Assaying,' by Prof. Ricketts and Dr. Miller of Columbia University (John Wiley & Sons), is substantially a much enlarged edition of Ricketts's 'Notes on Assaying and Assay Schemes,' which has met with such favor as to have passed though more than one edition. The book is what it professes to be, not an intricate and complete work on analytical chemistry, but a handy compendium of practical methods for use in the laboratory. Its success reminds us that Mr. H. M. Howe, the recently appointed Professor of Metallurgy at Columbia, has won world-wide fame and personal dstinction by his exhaustive treatise on 'The Metallurgy of Steel'; that Prof. Kemp's 'Ore Deposits of the United States' fills a place in every technical library beside Van Cotta's classic on a similar subject; and that Profs. Chandler, Newberry, and Eggleston have added largely to the literature of chemistry, geology, and metallurgy.

Kürschner's unrivalled 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender' for 1897 (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) has recently appeared in its usual form, slightly larger than the volume of last year. Two portraits serve as frontispieces. The first, of Max Ring of Berlin, is inserted in memory of his eightieth birthday; his contribution to literature for 1896 was the story 'Vor dem Schwurgericht,' and for 1897 the novel 'Irrwege.' The other is of Detler von Liliencron, whose 'Kriegsnovellen' of 1896 has been very popular. There is the usual valuable, well-ordered miscellany regarding literary legislation, societies, prizes, necrology, etc. The lexicon proper gives 1,500 pages of names of writers, with a list of the productions of each one, his residence, and the place and date of his birth.

Meyer Bros. & Co., No. 1132 Broadway, are the New York agents for a new art magazine, *La Revue de l'Art Ancien et Moderne*, which is published in Paris under the direction of M. Jules Compte, and which seems likely to take a high place among similar periodicals. The first number is devoted rather to ancient than to modern art, the Pasteur tomb being the only contemporary work discussed and illustrated. The other principal articles are on the French School at Athens, some Greek figurines recently added to the collections of the Louvre, the Bonnaffé Collection, and Jean Fouquet, and there are a number of shorter articles, departments, notes on exhibitions, etc. Each number is to contain at least four *planches hors texte*, and many illustrations, and these, in the present number, are excellently executed, while the text maintains a high level of competent criticism and investigation. The *Revue* bids fair to prove a worthy rival of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*.

The same publishers send us the first two fascicules of Armand Dayot's 'Journées Révolutionnaires, 1830-1848,' a pictorial history in line with his albums on the Revolution and the First Empire, and consisting of numerous chronologically arranged facsimiles of paintings, sculpture, drawings, lithographs, medals, and other contemporary illustrations of the period, each briefly described. Portraiture and caricature enter largely into the scheme, which is much to be commended as stimulating historical curiosity and familiarizing the mind of one who even casually turns these pages, with the physiognomy of the time.

The Duc de Broglie's article, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May 15, throws much light upon the relations between the Catholic Church and the State in France, and at the same time proves once more the compatibility of French republicanism with arbitrary rule. The writer reminds Archbishop Ireland, who, in an address at Paris, had reproached his French coreligionists for their failure to reach directly the people at large, that under French republican régime the Catholics have to reckon with police surveillance at their meetings, with the Council of State ready to call them to account for a hasty utterance, and with the fiscal agent eager to suppress the income of priests and prelates. He is therefore apparently inconsistent when, in the very next paragraph, he (with Père Maumus) recommends Catholics to avail themselves of all modern means of redress, such as the press, personal propaganda, electioneering, etc. This advice must be meant for the rank and file only of the faithful, for the functionaries of the Church would run the risk of forfeiting, not their places, but their salaries.

Dr. Heinrich Schroeder has issued a third edition of his brochure entitled 'Oberlehrer, Richter, Offiziere,' which presents a startling picture of the wretched situation of German teachers as compared with officials in other departments of the State service. A judgeship is anything but a sinecure, yet how far a judge's work is from being as exhausting and deadly as a teacher's is shown by the following figures gathered last year: There were 17 judges, but not one teacher, who had been in service more than 50 years; 44 judges and 1 teacher more than 45 years in service; 135 judges and 16 teachers more than 40. The average time of service of the *Oberlehrer* is about 22 years, and the highest salary is not reached till after 27 years of service, nor do those teachers who quit before that time receive as pensions more than half their salary. Dr. Schroeder calls attention to the increased number of hours imposed on teachers, and protests against this overburdening, not only on humane grounds, but for the utilitarian reason that a teacher who is almost necessarily exhausted cannot do first-rate work.

In his account of N. P. Willis, in the June *Bookman*, Mr. M. A. D. Howe quotes what he rightly says is "a picturesque reminiscence" which "George William Curtis has left, . . . *of which the chronology must not be scrutinized too closely.*" It is generally supposed to be part of a biographer's business to scrutinize the chronology of his authorities, and thus avoid unnecessary errors, but there have been indications before this that Mr. Howe deemed such examination a waste of time. It may be true of some persons that he who runs may read, but it would be better for Mr. Howe, if he must read, to go less fast. The writer of the paper

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from which he quotes says he was fifteen at the time the incident happened, and that Willis was then editing his Boston magazine. Now the magazine came to an end in June, 1831, and as the occasion described was a Harvard commencement, the date must have been, at the latest, 1830. George William Curtis was born in 1824. This scrutinizing (for which, when Mr. Howe's articles appear as a book, we expect him to thank us) will satisfy most readers that the reminiscence is attributed to the wrong man.

Mr. James Means's *Aeronautical Annual* for 1897 (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.) pursues its winged hobby with a convincing display of solid scientific study and varied experiment applied to the navigation of the air during the past twelvemonth. Prof. Langley describes anew his achievement with a self-raising and self-propelling aerodrome; Octave Chanute relates his valuable and not inexpensive trials of an apparatus for gliding derived from the ill-fated Otto Lilienthal's; M. Chanute's associate, A. M. Herring, has an independent story to tell, embracing a motor; Percy S. Pilcher, an employee of Mr. Maxim, reports his adventures with a Lilienthalian machine, which he means to equip with an oil engine to drive a screw-propeller. Finally, Mr. Maxim has a few valuable paragraphs on the working of screw-propellers in air, and accounts for his inactivity with his own flying-machine by the liveliness of the gun business during the past year. Having, however, obtained very large premises with plenty of room, he hopes ere long to find leisure to renew his experimenting.

By an unfortunate juxtaposition of words and emblems, England is unintentionally depicted in the new Congressional Library as a decrepit old woman, gathering dry sticks, who is being winked at by a knowing-looking owl perched on a neighboring bough. The pendentives of the beautiful southwest pavilion of the Library are filled by four plaques in relief, representing Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter. Under each is a single word illustrative of the season—Seed, Bloom, Fruit, Decay. The mural paintings of the room are designed to illustrate the progress of Discovery through Conquest to Civilization, and honor is shown the four nations most conspicuous in the colonization of the New World—Spain, Portugal, France, and England—by inscribing their names conspicuously in the four corners of the pavilion, and therefore under the mottoes describing the medallions. One or other name had to be painted under the ominous word Decay, and beneath the decrepit old woman; and as chance would have it, the lot fell to England.

It has long been known that the Swiss glaciers are subject to variations in length, increasing or decreasing from decade to decade. Prof. Gorel of Morges has made a special study of this subject ever since 1880, and has come to the conclusion that the period of the fluctuations is a long one—somewhere between forty and fifty years. Moreover, it appears that not all the glaciers decrease and increase at the same time. Careful measurements made during 1895, for instance, showed that more than seventy were steadily growing in length, while about the same number had been unmistakably receding since 1892, without any signs that the limit had been reached. The famous Grindelwald glacier, which has been somewhat insignificant of recent years, is among those which are growing, and the proprietor of the Wetterhorn hotel foresees the time, at the present rate of progress, when the ice will push against his building and probably necessitate its removal.

—In the *Atlantic* for June, Mr. Albert Shaw writes a somewhat light article on the Municipal Problem and Greater New York. His criticism is throughout at one with that of other critics who have treated the subject; but he falls into an error in calling the new government a "bureaucracy pure and simple," suggesting "Russian cities" and "Russian provincial governments." What he means is that the Mayor will have the power of appointing all heads of departments, who after six months will be practically unaccountable to anybody, giving us, instead of a city with a responsible head, eighteen different departments, each independent within its own sphere. The fact is, however, that the new heads of departments will not be irremovable, but removable, just as at present, "for cause," provided the Mayor can get the sanction of the Governor. Responsibility will depend on the Governor and Mayor being of one way of thinking. This is not a good system, but it is not simple bureaucracy, nor do we believe that it is much like anything in Russia. It has long been on trial in New York, and we know all about it by experience here already. The effect will be to make it very desirable for those who have elected the Governor one year to elect the Mayor the next; and this is what they mean to do, if possible. Mr. Irving Babbitt's article on "Ferdinand Brunetière and his Critical Method" is worth reading, for it is written by a man who has made a thorough study of French critical literature, and has himself something of the divine (or accursed) quality of the critic. An anonymous writer discusses Prof. Sloane's Life of Napoleon at some length.

—In *Harper's* the principal illustrated articles are "A New Switzerland," *i. e.*, the Dauphiné, by Edwin Lord Weeks; Dr. Henry Smith Williams's "Meteorological Progress of the Century"; Poultney Bigelow's eighth instalment of "White Man's Africa"; and T. P. O'Connor's "Celebrities of the House of Commons." The portraits illustrating the latter are by Paul Rénouard. Mr. O'Connor is at his best in a certain sketchy kind of description which comes in part of long journalistic practice. His paper, to any one familiar with English politics, would convey nothing very new; but for the American market it is admirably contrived; incidentally we get an impression of the real nature of the great "talking shop" of Westminster, which suggests, by contrast, the extraordinarily different sort of parliament that we have produced at Washington. One of Mr. O'Connor's points is a clever bit of analysis of what is called the "tone" of the House of Commons—the manner which the new man must learn, and in which he must become natural in order to succeed. This tone, this manner, is simply that of good society. What a gentleman would call a good way of speaking is called good speaking by the House of Commons; what would irritate "the feelings of a gentleman" irritates those of the House. This explains many a success and many a failure. There is a very amusing account of Mr. Balfour's early appearance, when in manner and in his use of his pocket-handkerchief he recalled a young curate. Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden's "Elder Brother of the Cliff Dwellers" is full of much curious information about a race to whom he invites the attention of anthropologists. "Henry Gladwin and the Siege of Pontiac," by Charles Moore, is a study of the siege of Detroit, and of "the man who defeated Pontiac," made with the aid of the Parkman manuscripts. Not much of the romance of the frontier is left to shed a glamour over the story, but the article gives a vivid picture of the times, and is accompanied, among other illustrations, by portraits of Gladwin and his wife.

—*Scribner's* publishes Mr. Barrett Wendell's "Ralegh in Guiana." It is described as a "chronicle-history in the Elizabethan manner," and has been produced under the author's direction at Cambridge. The contributions which will attract most attention are Montgomery Schuyler's "New Library of Congress" (illustrated) and Mr. Stephen Crane's "The Open Boat," "being the experience of four men from the sunk steamer *Commodore*." Some readers will think this powerful, others will find it weak, but realistic it cannot be called. The adventures of the little ten-foot dingey, with its load of four men, running through seas mountains high (many of which are from time to time shipped), standing out a gale on a dangerous coast for thirty-six hours and more, and finally beached through a deadly surf stern on, with only one life lost, are distinctly supernatural. We recall nothing equal to them in the pages of Marryat, or Charles Reade, or Clark Russell, all of whom in their day have spun pretty stiff yarns about the sea. We are glad Mr. Crane has given up realism, because any one could see from the first that with him it was a forced style, unnatural to him, and adopted of malice prepense. Realists describe what they have seen and lived through; Mr. Crane's specialty is the unexperienced.

—The *Century* for June is an unusually good number. The most generally interesting article is that on the Shaw Memorial and St. Gaudens, illustrated by reproductions, not merely of the memorial itself, but of more than two dozen specimens of the sculptor's best work—including the Butler and Schiff children, the figure in Rock Creek Cemetery, and the rejected Columbian medal. Edward Atkinson narrates the history of the monument; William A. Coffin gives an account of the sculptor himself, and T. W. Higginson contributes a short essay on "Colored Troops under Fire." It is almost forgotten now that the first conspicuous effort in line of battle of any negro troops was in the attack on Port Hudson. On May 23, 1863 (three months before the assault on Fort Wagner), Port Hudson was attacked by the First and Third Louisiana Native Guard, under Col. Nelson; three successive charges were made upon a nearly impregnable position, and out of an attacking force of 1,080, the loss was 37 killed, 155 wounded, and 16 missing. Gen. Banks reported their conduct as "heroic." It seems strange now to recall the fact that the first tests made of these troops were in what were practically forlorn hopes, and in the second of which they might have been successful but for non-support by white regiments. An entertaining article is that on Victoria's Coronation Roll, fortified by a charming picture of the little Princess at the age of four. The article, by Florence

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Hayward, contains a great deal of curious ceremonial lore, much of which has historical value, and would be hard to get at but for her researches. In his "Campaigning with Grant," Gen. Horace Porter examines once more the relations between Grant and Sherman, leaving the impression produced by the facts at the time of the march to the sea—that Sherman was the genius who divined the possible success of the extraordinary campaign; Grant, the inscrutable military sphinx who let it be done at the very moment when it was practicable, prevented it when it was impracticable, gave all the credit of it to Sherman, and apparently never knew, any more than we do, how far he was in all this a great commander and how far only a shrewd man. "How a Riddle of the Parthenon Was Unravelled," by Eugene P. Andrews, is sure to attract attention, even from those who, like our own readers, have already some knowledge of the achievement. The poem called "The Last Fight," by L. Frank Tooker, a name not familiar to us, is full of promise.

—The current number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) contains monographs on the two "glories of the Norwich School," John Crome and John Sell Cotman, by Laurence Binyon. The illustrations, admirably reproduced, on the whole, from the plates about to be published by the Autotype Company, give a better idea than has hitherto been generally attainable of the scope and power of these two artists of genius, who "have suffered misconception, since much of their best work . . . is in private hands and unknown to the general public." The misconception of Crome is well exemplified in the following passage from Muther's 'History of Modern Painting,' which is quoted by Mr. Binyon: "He lived absolutely apart from the England of his time. . . . Norwich was his birthplace and his life-long residence. He did not know the name of Turner, he knew nothing of Wilson, he had, perhaps, never heard Gainsborough's name. His pictures are influenced neither by his contemporaries nor his English forerunners. . . . Hobbema is his model, the art of the Netherlands his ideal." This is so far from the truth that Mr. Binyon has no difficulty in showing that Crome was personally acquainted with Turner, and on friendly terms with him, and was influenced by him even in his last years; that Wilson and Gainsborough were his earlier idols, on whom his own work was founded, and that it was only comparatively late in his career that the influence of Hobbema became marked. Mr. Binyon would seem to rank Crome above any landscape painter of England, if not of the world. Whether or no he will eventually be given such a rank, the painter of "The Poringland Oak" and "Mousehold Heath" must always hold a very high place among landscape painters. Cotman is even less known to the general public than Crome, and his works here reproduced have a charm, a dignity, and an undeniable individuality which make us welcome the chance to know him better.

THE LITERATURE OF THE REVOLUTION.

The Literary History of the American Revolution, 1763-1783. By Moses Coit Tyler, Professor of American History in Cornell University. Volume I. 1763-1776. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

In Prof. Tyler's own words, he has aimed, in the work before us, to present "the soul, rather than the body, of the American Revolution, . . . an unbiassed register of the brain and heart of the sorely divided people." In fulfilment of this purpose, he epitomizes, carefully and clearly, the literature of the four great controversies which fall within the period 1763-1776, the pamphlet wars over the Stamp Act, the revenue acts, the association of 1774, and the question of independence. To outlines of these big controversies he further adds a glance at a part of the general bookmaking of those years of angry discussion, and most admirable and appreciative studies of the young writers, John Trumbull, Philip Freneau, and Francis Hopkinson. Indeed, painstakingly though the author has read the arguments of Otis, Dulany, Dickinson, and Jefferson, it is easy to see that he gladly turns from their solid arguments on the constitutional aspect of the issues at stake to the satires and daring verses of the youngsters. And it must be confessed that, under his graphic pen, the personality of John Trumbull, able to repeat all the verses in the New England Primer at two years of age and passing the Yale College examination when but five years older, does exceed in interest those of the ablest writers on the legal difficulties of the Revolution.

Nowhere does the author's preference for true literature show more strongly than in his selection of material. The controversial pamphlet, the flaming satire, the popular ballad, all receive adequate attention, but the state paper, the essential weapon of the contest down to the moment when the argument of last resort was appealed to, is almost wholly neglected. Of all the famous public papers, beginning with the resolutions of the Virginia Assembly of 1764, not one receives more than passing notice except the Declaration of Independence, though in them, rather than in the works of irresponsible writers, are the true expression of what the leaders of thought claimed and worked for. So, too, the literature of the side issues, such as the questions of an established church, of commercial restriction, and of the public territory, all of which added so much force to the main conflict, is barely mentioned.

By this criticism it is not intended to suggest that Prof. Tyler does not fully recognize that the American Revolution in its early stages was no war of pasquinades, but one of solid argument. Yet because the literary rather than the legal aspect appeals to him more strongly, he has produced a certain purposed disproportion, and it must be acknowledged that his work has thereby gained enormously in interest and popularity. Had the constitutional aspect been more considered, however, it is to be questioned if the author would seriously have likened the riots against the stamps and the tea to the later principle of nullification, or the assertion of independence to the later attempted secession. The resistance to the acts of Parliament in 1765-73 was the work of mobs, to which all unpopular laws are subject; nullification was always an attempt to suspend a law by law, and the question turned wholly on the now familiar principle of which was the unconstitutional law. Applying the author's view, the draft riots of 1863 become merely an attempted nullifying of national law. Equally untenable, too, is his comparison as to secession. Every true advocate of secession claimed it as a constitutional right, and therefore as one to which no legal objection could be made; no American, when the moment for independence came, for a moment asserted the right of peaceful separation, and the Declaration alleges only the rights of nature, that is, of revolution, as it was at once correctly termed. The difference was purposely befogged by many writers in the civil-war period, but any one who will take the trouble to lay the national Declaration of Independence and that of South Carolina side by side can never confuse the distinction.

Prof. Tyler finds in James Otis the first man to argue broadly the rights of America, and in this we think he is justified. Though Richard Bland in Virginia preceded him by ten years in his assertion of the full rights of the colonists, it was made in connection with a purely local issue; and since a starting-point was to be found, no better man than Otis could have been chosen. We wish some notice had been taken of the rare and scurrilous pamphlet entitled 'Proposals for the Life . . . of Vice-Admiral Sir Thomas Brazen. . . . by Tom Thumb,' written against Otis, by Samuel Waterhouse, which is the earliest genuine Tory argument. So, also, in outlining the "Halifax Letter" controversy, conducted by Otis, Hopkins, and Martin, the mistake of Tudor in ascribing a reply, really written by Otis, to Hopkins, might have been explained by reference to Hopkins's second pamphlet, 'A Letter to the Author of the Halifax Gentlemen,' which seems to have escaped the notice of both Otis's and Hopkins's biographers, as well as of Prof. Tyler.

In considering the hitherto almost untrodden field of the writings of the Loyalists, the treatment is most fair-minded, and the outlines of the arguments of Martin, Seabury, and Leonard are admirable. Rather too little stress is accorded to Galloway, who was the only truly constructive writer—one might well say, the only true statesman—on the losing side; and his own defence, 'Americanus Examined, and his Principles compared with those of the approved Advocates for America' (Philadelphia, 1774), is not cited among his writings, though of great importance in the consideration of the man. The rather lengthy study of Jonathan Boucher is to be questioned from the opposite point of view, for his sermons were no better than those delivered by many others of his brother clergymen; not one was of sufficient merit to be printed at the time of delivery. A volume of them was printed at the author's charge over twenty years after their delivery, but both garbling of the text and misstatement are easily detected in them, and go far to discredit their value. Less space given to his sermons and some consideration of those of the Rev. William Smith and the Rev. Jacob Duché, which were very popular, and in time came to reflect the moderate Tory view, would have been, we think, an improvement.

Prof. Tyler touches on one matter connected with the Loyalists which has not yet received sufficient attention, namely, the intellectual loss America suffered by the schism; and it is to be hoped that in his second volume he will consider this more at

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length in discussing their eventual expatriation. The loss of such men as Hutchinson, Judge William Smith, Rumford, John Randolph, and many more of the same type was very material, and one which even civil war has seldom produced. Undoubtedly the Whig writers were abler in the field of political discussion, but the practical extinction of every other form of literature until another generation came to the front, was largely caused by the destruction of the old gentry and of the college-bred men who were so generally loyalist in their sympathies. Another unfortunate result flowing from this schism was the loss of free speech, and the dominant Whig adopted many methods for the suppression of debate which left a visible influence in a certain want of fairness in American politics that lasted for many years. Indeed, the party feeling gained such a hold in those years that even the historian of later time dared not run counter to it, and it is related that when Mr. George Bancroft was asked the reason for his suppression of certain facts, his excuse was that the American public would not tolerate the whole truth concerning the Revolution. But the present book is itself a proof that the spirit of true history is once more an American possession, and for that very reason Prof. Tyler is correct when he maintains that the results of his survey will be "eirenic rather than polemic" on "both sides of the ocean."

The biography of John Trumbull is the most distinct contribution of the book; much material has been drawn from hitherto unpublished papers, and it is by far the best account of the man that has yet appeared. If Prof. Tyler would elaborate this one sketch into a separate book, it would be a very interesting and valuable addition to what is now accessible concerning the young poet.

We observe that, in the consideration of Thomas Paine, the author discredits the apocryphal contributions to the *Pennsylvania Magazine* which were included, without the slightest proof of Paine's authorship, in the latest edition of his writings, and he might have gone still further by pointing out that Paine distinctly disavowed one of the pieces included in this edition (the "Montgomery Ghost Dialogue") in a letter to the newspapers in 1776. The popularity and influence of his 'Common Sense' are graphically set forth, though a careful study of the conditions must lead the historian to concur with Francis Lightfoot Lee when he wrote to Landon Carter in May, 1776, "I agree with you that the arbitrary and cruel proceedings of the British Court . . . hath made more independents than Common Sense"; a sentiment echoed by Gen. Charles Lee in the statement that the effects of 'Common Sense' "are trifling, conparitively [*sic*], with the outrageous folly, insanity, and villany of the King and Ministry." The great value of 'Common Sense' was not so much in its advocacy of independency as in its answers to the problems that independence involved: Could we successfully fight Great Britain? And, granting that we could, what was to become of us when we had gained our freedom? No writer has yet come forward to discriminate the conflict for democratic power from the conflict for independence, but when the subject is properly taken up, the popularity of 'Common Sense' will be found to consist largely in its strong democracy. Paine has been blamed for his terming King George "a royal brute," but, to the already powerful party of democracy in America, no single element appealed so strongly as the pamphleteer's philippic against kings and kingcraft. We note that one of the ablest replies to the famous pamphlet, entitled 'The True Merits of a Late Treatise . . . by a Late Member of the Continental Congress,' written by a Southerner, and probably by a South Carolinian, has not been discovered by Prof. Tyler.

All these suggestions are not made, however, in criticism, for the literature is a vast one, incapable of full treatment in any such space as the author has allowed himself. Every essential controversy of the time has been adequately treated, and a very large and very rare class of books has been most interestingly discussed. The words of the great penmen of the Revolution have been so treated that, in reading the book, one gains a clearer perception of the causes and growth of the Revolution than is to be obtained in many of the histories devoted to the recording of events. Prof. Tyler refers to the fact that American history is now being rewritten in a far deeper and broader manner, and his own book is evidence sufficient for the statement.

WÜLFING'S SYNTAX OF ALFRED THE GREAT.

Die Syntax in den Werken Alfreds des Grossen. Von Dr. J. Ernst Wülfing. Erster Theil: Hauptwort, Artikel, Eigenschaftswort, Zahlwort, Fürwort. 8vo, pp. xxix, 491. 1894. Zweiten Theiles erste Hälfte: Zeitwort. 8vo, pp. xiv, 250. 1897. Bonn: P. Hanstein.

One might reasonably expect that two large volumes bearing this title would not only contain a clear account of King Alfred's idiom, but would lay the foundation for a thoroughly scientific treatment of English syntax. The work before us, however, is little more than a catalogue of the syntactical constructions found in the prose translations usually assigned to Alfred, with notes on the apparent anomalies, and occasional comments on the various readings of the printed texts. In standpoint, treatment, and style the book is very much like a huge doctor-dissertation. A rubric, a number of citations, a note; another rubric, more citations, a statement that Prof. So-and-so has written to the author to say that he thinks, etc.—and so on through some 700 pages, and the work little more than half done. There can be no doubt, however, that the author deserves the thanks of English students for having taken up a subject at once so important and so difficult. For what with the prevalence of vague notions as to the aim and method of syntax study, and the lack of critical texts to work with, and the want of historical knowledge of the vulgar idiom, and the neglect that the subject has suffered at the hands of scholars, English syntax is a field beset with an unusual number of difficulties.

That these have proved too great for him is apparent from even a cursory examination of Wülfing's work. Having undertaken a treatise on Alfred's syntax, it would seem necessary first of all to settle definitely the question of the genuineness and probable chronological order of the works usually ascribed to Alfred. In the introduction to the first volume the question of origin and order is indeed treated, but in a most superficial way. No new light is thrown on the subject, no new evidence presented. The Beda translation and the prose part of the Paris Psalter are retained as Alfred's, though even at the time when the introduction was written (1894) there was a great deal of doubt about the genuineness of the former, and the best scholars were inclined to abandon the theory of Alfred's authorship of the latter. A new arrangement is given based on reasons like those which follow: The 'Cura' cannot be an early work "because it is a faithful and literal version of Gregory's Latin, and a beginner in the art of translation passes over the difficult parts, or only tries to give their probable meaning." On the other hand, the Boethius translation, which is conspicuous for its omissions and its free handling of the original, is one of the King's later works "because it would have been too difficult for him to undertake before he had had some experience in translating Latin, and this would have been apparent to him from Asser's gloss and explanation of the text." Reasoning in this way, Wülfing decides upon the following order for the works which he considers genuine: the Translation of Beda's History, the Orosius Version, the Translation of Gregory's 'Cura Pastoralis,' the Paraphrase of Boethius, the 'Blooms.' To these he adds the Laws of King Alfred. This gives us a new theory—the ninth!—and suggests an interesting problem: If fourteen scholars arrange the same five works in nine different ways during a period of a hundred years, how long will it be until the question is settled? And then, after all, there is the probability that some of these translations were not made by the King himself, but only executed at his command, and that they do not form a series at all.

When we come to consider Wülfing's investigations in detail, we find that they suffer from a variety of causes. He follows the traditional system of formal classification which has come down from vol. iv. of Grimm's 'Grammatik.' In Grimm's time such an arrangement of material was, perhaps, the only one possible; and Grimm's subject was the syntax of the Germanic dialects, not that of Alfred's works. We are now certainly far enough advanced in our study of English to be able to treat its syntax according to a method logical as well as historical. As our knowledge widens, we come to see more clearly what an elastic medium of expression English is; how in the course of its history ambiguous and cumbrous idioms give place to clearer and simpler forms of expression; how parts of speech adapt themselves to new forms of expression; how analogy extends the usefulness of types of inflection. A treatment of English Syntax, therefore, should be based upon material and not upon formal distinctions. If convenience of reference is desired, an index like the one at the end of Wülfing's first volume would fully serve the purpose.

The traditional system in our author's hands is more embarrassing than ever, for he begins his work with nouns, and not with verbs, as Grimm did. This gives rise to a great deal of repetition. For instance, on p. 5 of volume i., the genitive after the adjective *gcorn* falls under division 2 of group A ("The genitive with adjectives") in a class

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whose rubric runs "The genitive with adjectives like 'desirous' ("begierig"), 'careless' ("sorglos"), . . . and similar adjectives"; while the genitive with *geornfulnes* is found on p. 45 of volume i., in an entirely different group of genitive constructions, viz., group D ("The genitive with nouns"), under the rubric "The genitive of the object of the action implied in the noun"; and the genitive after *girnan* falls in still another group, viz., group C ("The genitive with verbs"), p. 12, div. 1, as a "genitive after verbs indicating *effort*, etc." Here we have the same phenomenon entered in three unconnected and distinct categories.

The confusions due to the author's system are just as unhappy. In volume i., 298, the first chapter of the first division of numerals has to do with the numeral *án*. The first division is "*án* used as an adjective"; the first section of this treats of "*án* before the noun," and brings together the following idioms: *on ánum gefeohte* ("in a single battle") *néah án gethéode* ("nearly the same language"), *ánne finger & ánne* ("one finger after another"), *wille áne onsendan* ("I will send one," *i. e.*, one of the books), *ich eom ána god*, which the author translates "[Ich bin] der einzige Gott." If syntax has anything to do with the meaning and use of forms of expression, a classification that includes such idioms as these under one head, without distinguishing them from one another, is surely little better than no classification at all.

Again, in many parts of the book, there is a lack of fine discrimination, which produces mechanical arrangement: *e. g.*, under "Der Genitiv bei Zeitwörtern" we have a rubric (I, p. 14) "Der Genitiv erscheint bei Zeitwörtern der mündlichen Aeusserung irgendwelcher Art" (The genitive after verbs expressing some sort of assertion), including eight different verbs all but one or two of which are stragglers from other commands. Finally, the citations are not always exhaustive; *e. g.*, on p. 18 of the second volume we are told that only *sceamian* ('to be ashamed of') occurs with a reflexive genitive, as, *hit is cyn thæt wé úre scomigen*, 'it is seemly that we be ashamed of ourselves.' But in the 'Cura,' p. 220 (Sweet), we have such a genitive with *waldan* ('to control one's self'); also in the Boethius, p. 64 (Cardale), a similar idiom with *gehelpan* 'to help one's self'), and another in the 'Cura,' p. 228, with *plion* ('to risk one's self'). The reflexive genitive in Alfred's works is not such a rarity, therefore, as it appears to be from Wülfing's statement.

There are many other faults of detail, as indeed there must be in a work made up largely of citations; but there are many excellences too, and much evidence of painstaking care. The greatest defect is the want of a clear and definite system of classification founded upon a familiarity with English syntax in all its periods. Alfred, it is true, brings to his work an idiom but lately used to celebrate the deeds of Germanic heroes, and it is well not to lose sight of this fact; yet it is an idiom already English in its main characteristics, and destined to remain so. As we find it in the 'Cura' or in the Boethius cheek by jowl with classic Latin, struggling to do the task set for its more cultured brother, we see in its directness, its seriousness, its simplicity the prophecy of Chaucer and Shakspere. When Alfred changes the academic "quid sit igitur æternitas consideremus" into the direct question "Thá cwæth ic, 'Hwæt is écnes?'" we know we are on English ground. We know, too, how Wiclyf and Tyndal will translate Pilate's question, and how Shakspere will put *Hamlet's*. Such a language is a living language, and cannot be fruitfully studied in reference to the categories of a dead one. What we want, therefore, is a clear, concise treatment of English syntax, from an English standpoint, following the history of the English language as it has been used to express the development of English thought; a book whose chief interest shall be the living, growing tree itself, and not its grafts and dead branches.

True Stories of New England Captives, carried to Canada during the old French and Indian wars. By C. Alice Baker. Cambridge, Mass.: The Author. 1897. Pp. 407.

Miss Baker deserves credit for original research in a virgin field, and through some avenues of approach which man could not enter. Accordingly, she has fitly dedicated her narratives "to the nuns and priests by whom she had been kindly helped." Born in Deerfield, the first of New England towns to be burnt by French and Indians, and from which they carried off more victims than from any other, the words "carried to Canada whence they came not back" described some of her own ancestors. Hence her longing to know the fate of the unknown was intensified. This wish, as she tells us, "became a purpose, and she took it upon her as a mission to open the door for their return." She made more than one journey to the new Dominion, and stood as an eye-witness in every spot where the exiles she chronicles had lived. She shows us—sometimes in photographic facsimile—the manuscript annals of their baptisms, marriages, deaths, new names, etc. Detecting and gathering fragments which previous searchers had given up for lost, she has pieced them together in mosaics which supplement and make doubly vivid many a passage in Parkman's 'Half-Century of Conflict.' Nor is our author, like many original explorers, ignorant or contemptuous of the materials already provided to lighten her task. Her authorities are more than a score, and the best among them—the Massachusetts manuscript archives—are quoted more than thirty times. Home studies had added a precious seeing to her eye abroad in convent, church, and hospital, by flood and field.

The leading heroines of her story are six, Christine Otis, Esther Wheelwright, Eunice Williams, Abigail Nims, Abigail Stebbins, and Martha French. Christine Otis, captivated in New Hampshire when an infant, was married in 1705 at sixteen to a Frenchman. After his death she fell in with a Yankee lover, and in 1714 escaped with him to Boston, but could never rescue her children. Esther Wheelwright, in 1703, at the age of seven, was carried off from Maine. After four years in a wigwam she was taken into the Quebec convent of Ursulines, where she ultimately became the Mother Superior. Her portrait, dating from 1761, forms Miss Baker's frontispiece. The other four involuntary travellers to Montreal were all from Deerfield, Mass., and all left there in 1704. Eunice Williams, eight years old when expatriated, was never yielded to the French by her Indian captor. Had she been mindful of the country whence she came out, she could have returned. She did go thither more than once, but refused to be ransomed. She married an Indian, and her grandson Eleazer, in the last generation, made no small stir as the lost French Prince, or "a Bourbon among us." Abigail Stebbins was a bride of three weeks when made prisoner, and, with her husband, who was a Frenchman, lived near Montreal till her death in 1740, and her posterity were discovered by Miss Baker still in the same hamlet. One of her children, however, when permitted in boyhood to visit Deerfield, refused to return, and became one of Miss Baker's ancestors. Abigail Nims, four years old when her sisters were scalped, was taken North with her mother, who was killed on the march. What became of her was never ascertained before the search-lights of Miss Baker were turned on. It could have been proved by Boston archives that Abigail, who, though taught in a French school, clung to her Indian master, had been carried down to Deerfield and bought at a cost of £40. She soon vanished, and was never heard of there any more. But, thanks to some prehistoric underground railroad, she reached Canada again. An official document—a find of Miss Baker's—shows that on July 29, 1715, she was married in the church at Lorette to a boy who, eleven years before, had been brought with her from Massachusetts. One of their issue became head of the nuns of the Congregation. Martha French, an eight-years-old prisoner, was married to two French husbands. Her daughter Louise bore a son who rose to be the first Archbishop of Quebec.

It must be evident, even from this meagre outline, that few careers can be fraught with more romantic incidents than the lives of these half-dozen girls, tragically torn away from their childhood homes. Equally plain is it that such girls were at once in demand among Frenchmen of character and position. Rarity heightened value. Female emigrants from France were few, and the most attractive had become nuns. Carrying off maidens from New England was thus not without analogies to the Roman rape of the Sabine women. Nor was their captivity such a curse as it seemed. Like the grain of gravel which comes chafingly into the oyster-shell, it was transformed into pearl. The stealing of boys was also profitable. It not only sapped the Yankee fighting force, but it furnished braves and even chiefs to the aborigines. In another volume, now in preparation, Miss Baker will make this point clear. She was first to ferret out the true New England descent of an Abenaki leader whose descendant, Judge Gill of the Montreal Superior Court, had essayed that task in vain.

The predatory system of the French was inhuman, but yet their best weapon. It retained the Indians as catspaws. Both in war and in peace, it saved Canadians from fur-traders who were more than their match, and from fighters who were tenfold their numbers. It spoke with more effect than Canute to the swelling tide of settlement in New Hampshire and Vermont. It made a solitude and called it peace. The French played a game in which they were sure to beat. Six hundred Yankees ranged the frontier a whole winter and never discovered one Indian; three times as many all through summer had little better success. There was often peace between the mother countries, but Indian depredations knew no peace. Wherever guards were careless, the savages

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killed all they could not lead into bondage. Captives brought £8 apiece and scalps half price. When envoys demanded redress, the French answer was that it was beyond their power to grant it. Thus: "Les sauvages de Canada son entierment libres, et ils ne sont point comptable de leur actions de qui que ce soit" (p. 346).

It seems incredible that the raids on New England could be viewed as missionary enterprises, but such was the fact. The experience of Pope Gregory when, beholding the blond slave boys from Britain, he exclaimed "*Angli*—why not *Angeli*?" repeated itself. Canadian priests would gladly have preached in Deerfield. They could not; but that Deerfield should come to them was the next best thing. With as good reason their contemporaries among us defended the kidnapping of negroes from Guinea who were thus brought within the sound of church-bells and gospel privileges. This proselytism was, of course, to the Puritan the unkindest cut of all—that his children were brought up under another gospel, which, according to his conviction, was not another. It ought to be better known than it is that Dartmouth College was founded, and that as far north as possible, solely as a retaliatory nursery of Indian missionaries who were to evangelize Canada. Some of its first students were imported from the self-same spots where Deerfield's darlings had been perverted. See those rare pamphlets, President Wheelock's reports, onward from 1761. Miss Baker puts herself in the place equally of Puritan and Papist, and so does justice to both. She has made a book which no historical student can fail to prize. The citations *verbatim et literatim* of quaint manuscripts which were milestones and street-lamps in her progress, add alike to the raciness and authority of her writing.

In the next edition, which we hope to welcome in the near future, some oversights will be corrected. Rutland will not appear as in Vermont (p. 335), nor portholes for loopholes (p. 42), nor 1667 for 1677 (p. 114). The index cannot fail to be four-fold more copious; the narrative will be condensed—vain repetitions struck out and perhaps seventy pages of appendix omitted, which handicap a book now too large to be held in the hand and read by the fire.

Latin Manuscripts. By Harold W. Johnston. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1897.

This manual of 130 pages is the outcome of a course of lectures on Palæography, Hermeneutics, and Criticism delivered at the last session of the Summer School of Indiana University by Prof. H. W. Johnston of that University. The author tells us that it is an "elementary manual," and that it has been prepared, in reponse to the wish of teachers in Latin, for use in the high schools. We learn with gratified surprise that "questions relating to Palæography and Criticism" are common in the secondary schools of Indiana. "I hope," says Prof. Johnston, "that this volume contains all that students in high schools . . . will need in order to understand the critical notes found in the text-books commonly used." Happy secondary-school teachers of Indiana—*sua si bona norint!* If they have solved the problem how, with the high-school course, to produce Latin scholars, we wish they would confide their method to the teachers in the other States. At any rate, we welcome this effort to excite at an early stage scholarly interest and ambition—motives that are, for the most part, conspicuously absent from the make-up of the average secondary-school student of Latin. If such a student should be induced, by the beautiful reproductions of the MSS. and the general attractiveness of Mr. Johnston's book, to look into it, it may be trusted to create the taste by which it is to be enjoyed. At the least he will regard his 'Kelsey's Ovid,' or his 'Allen and Greenough's Cæsar,' with a more imaginative eye when he learns whence and how—through what strange channels and with what hairbreadth escapes—they have reached his unwilling hands.

It is no slight to Mr. Johnston's work to say that its most interesting page, at the present moment, is the facsimile plate of the new MS. of Catullus, the Codex Romanus discovered last year in the Vatican Library, hidden under a wrong number. Mr. Johnston was fortunate enough to secure from its discoverer, Prof. W. G. Hale, the privilege of publishing, for the first time, a facsimile page of this MS. For the information of those who are looking with interest for Mr. Hale's promised collation, and the Vatican facsimile shortly to be published, we may say that the date of the MS. is fourteenth century; the writing is minuscule, the hand North Italian Gothic. The MS. contains Catullus only, a rare circumstance in the case of MSS. of this author. The specimen page shows careful execution, and the elaborate initial letters and the writing are of peculiar beauty.

Mr. Johnston's book has three main divisions. The first treats of the history of the MSS., and describes their materials and manufacture, their publication, their transmission down to the present day, and their preservation in the libraries of Europe. The second and perhaps most interesting section deals with the science of Palæography, and gives the styles of writing, the various national "hands," the forms of the letters, and a fairly full treatment of the errors of scribes. In the third section Mr. Johnston defines the science of criticism, its methods and terminology, and gives useful illustrations of textual criticism, individual criticism *(Individual-Kritik)*—which term he rightly prefers to "Higher Criticism"—the limits of emendation, etc. Finally, he gives a description of the sixteen reproductions of Latin MSS., which are one of the best features of the book.

The main authority followed in the first section is, of course, Birt's 'Antikes Buchwesen' (1882); the plates are taken from Chatelain's 'Paléographie des Classiques Latines' (1884), with the exception of the Codex Romanus described above. A bibliography of Philological Criticism is a good deal to ask of an elementary manual; still, we regret its absence. One or two points call for further comment. We should not have said that the authorship of the treatise 'On the Sublime' is "generally attributed to Dionysius of Halicarnassus" (p. 115). On p. 83, for "fugibus" read *frugibus;* on p. 85, for "Voleanus" read *Volcanus.*

Juvenile Offenders. By W. Douglas Morrison. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

Some years ago, in reviewing Mr. Morrison's 'Crime and Its Causes,' we commented on his remarkable capacity for dealing with statistical returns, as manifested in his destructive criticism of the view that crime was rapidly diminishing in England. It is gratifying to know, as Mr. Morrison, with pardonable pride, assures us, that his arguments have since then been admitted to be conclusive, and have resulted in a revision of the Criminal Returns for England and Wales that makes them now comparatively satisfactory. They are satisfactory, however, only from the statistical point of view; for they establish the fact that the proportion of habitual criminals in the criminal population is steadily increasing, and was never so high as it is now. The same is known to be true in France, Germany, and Italy, and, according to Mr. Morrison, "it means that, as far as the bulk of the criminal population is concerned, penal law and penal administration have completely broken down."

The supreme object of a properly constituted penal system, he continues, is to prevent the offender who has once been convicted from repeating the offence. To fail in this, as the English system fails, is to subject the community to the loss, disquietude, and danger arising from the existence in its midst of a compact and formidable body of habitual criminals. When the penal system fails to prevent the repetition of offences, it involves the necessity of maintaining a large body of police. Such a body costs much more for maintenance than all the convicts in jail; in England, the expense for police is ten times that for prisons. Moreover, the expense for police is but a part of that which precaution advises. When we consider the cost of private watchmen, burglar-alarms, safes, bolts, bars, and locks, we see that the furtive propensity constitutes a frightful burden on society.

Mr. Morrison's experience has convinced him that the habitual criminal, as a rule, begins young. There is a pretty clear line between occasional and habitual offenders, and the occasional criminal does not often degenerate into the habitual criminal, unless he acquires criminal habits in youth—generally before, frequently long before, attaining manhood. Hence the most effective method of dealing with habitual crime is to prevent the juvenile offender from acquiring confirmed criminal habits. To accomplish this it is necessary in the first place to understand the conditions that produce juvenile delinquency. A large part of this book is devoted to a study of these conditions, which Mr. Morrison classifies as individual and social. The chief individual conditions are the sex, the age, the bodily and mental characteristics of the juvenile offender. The most important social conditions are parental and economic. On all these points Mr. Morrison's investigations are of the greatest value, and deserve the attention of philanthropists in general.

The second part of the book is devoted to showing how existing methods of dealing with juvenile offenders may be better adapted to the end of diminishing the causes which produce juvenile crime. In Mr. Morrison's opinion, punitive methods, although to a certain extent indispensable, are of comparatively little service as instruments of social security. The difficulty is that these methods tend to aggravate the adverse conditions that produce juvenile crime. They make more criminals than they cure. The great problem is to bring ameliorative influences to bear on individual offenders,

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and, what is more important, to improve the unfavorable conditions under which a considerable part of the youth of mankind are born and have to live. As Mr. Morrison says, "hitherto Christian charity has in the main directed its beneficent energies towards the alleviation of individual miseries. In the future its efforts must be more and more directed towards removing the causes by which these miseries are produced."

We can only speak in terms of general commendation of the manner in which Mr. Morrison addresses himself to these great problems. Many of his suggestions are of irresistible force, and his book as a whole deserves to be adopted as a manual by penologists. But we cannot resist the temptation to illustrate the author's merits by citing a few of his observations on the common theory that crime is principally caused by drunkenness. On this Mr. Morrison comments as follows:

"It is hardly possible for any one who looks at the connection between age and crime to take up this extreme position. Among children under the age of sixteen, it may be said, if the criminal returns are to be taken as a test, that such a thing as intemperance hardly exists. In 1894, in a total of nearly 100,000 convictions for being drunk, only about forty cases occurred among children under sixteen. Among the adult population between the ages of thirty and forty more than 50,000 convictions for drunkenness occurred. According to the theory that drink and crime inevitably go together, we ought to find the population between the ages of thirty and forty committing a great many more offences of an indictable character than the population under the age of sixteen. But as a matter of fact we do not find anything of the sort. Among juveniles under sixteen who are not addicted to the habit of drink, there are 261 indictable offenders to every 100,000 of the juvenile population under sixteen. On the other hand, among the population between thirty and forty who are largely addicted to drink there are only 200 indictable offenders to every 100,000 of the population of a similar age. In other words, there is less indictable crime among the drunken than among the sober section of the population."

The same conclusion follows from a comparison of the relatively sober population between sixteen and twenty-one with that between thirty and forty, the convictions for indictable offences being as 330 to 200. While these figures, as Mr. Morrison points out, do not tell the whole story, they are enough to correct the hasty generalizations of the prohibitionists; and their presentation is enough to prove the truth of our assertion that Mr. Morrison possesses the rare capacity of dealing with statistics according to the recognized methods of inductive science.

Navaho Legends. Collected and translated by Washington Matthews, M.D., LL.D. With introduction, notes, illustrations, texts, interlinear translations, and melodies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 299.

Among those who have made scientific conquest of our Southwest for American scholarship there is no more substantial name than that of Dr. Washington Matthews, U. S. A. Dean (by years in service) of that brave little school of field students which has defined the aboriginal tribes of our arid zone more precisely than any other tribes have yet been defined by American ethnography, he antedates even Bandelier. Without Bandelier's consummate documentary knowledge, unparalleled actual intimacy with the aborigines of two continents, and generic horizon, Dr. Matthews has the same specific, ingrained sincerity and sanity of observation, the same judicial prudence. Of field students of detail among the North American Indians there has been one more dazzling, but none quite so safe. Dr. Matthews misses alike the peaks and the pitfalls of the imaginative temperament. His work displays almost a genius for common sense; and the prophecy is not precarious that future knowledge will take fewer liberties with his results than with those of almost any other specialist of detail among our aborigines.

Dr. Matthews's 'Navaho Legends' is the most important Southwestern monograph since Bandelier's 'Final Report.' Only those who have learned the difficulties of studying Indian religious myths in fact (as contrasted with the collection of Indian tales from missionary and post-trader) will remotely guess for how much of patience and of learning this unpretentious record of the Navajo creation-myth really stands. There is no atmosphere of the oracle, no air of impressive generalization. Even the translucent kinship of Naithkíshi and Nayénezgani with the basic (and probably ancestral) Pueblo myth of the Hero brothers, twin-children of the Sun, he does not step aside to mark. He has appointed to himself the task of record, not of correlation. American ethnology is, in fact, in far more imminent need of field students than of comparative scientists. The evidence, once recorded, will always be ponderable; but time for the cross-examination of the living witnesses is all too short. The disintegration, among our Indian tribes, of whatever can profit ethnology is now fearfully rapid.

The harshest stricture that can be passed upon Dr. Matthews's monumental (though partial) volume concerns the spelling, into which he has been dragooned against his custom of years and apparently also his personal judgment. "Navaho" in place of the time-honored and etymologically sound "Navajo," "Moki" for "Moqui," and the like are vain concessions to ignorance. These are Spanish words learned by our scientists from their predecessors by centuries. Even the railroad "folders" do not butcher them; even the emigrant tourist learns to pronounce them. Dr. Matthews's audience is no less teachable. He does not write "San Whon" and "San Hosay" and "Santa Fay" and "Pweblo" for San Juan, San José, Santa Fé, and Pueblo. Why, then, distort words just as definitively fixed in our geography and our history? These awkward modern impertinences with words immortalized by students centuries before we came upon the scene, in no wise remedy the average American mind. To the scholar there could hardly be a ruder barbarism than "Navaho" for a Spanish word of powerful aspirate, and "Navahoes" for its plural; and how is the average lay reader to know if he shall call it Na-vah'-ho, Na-vā'-ho, Navva-ho', or what not?

The Bureau of Ethnology is responsible for these innovations—as also for the ingenious Washington alphabet it has devised for the representation of Indian vocables; an alphabet which makes even so lucid a book as this practically intolerable to the general reader. It is to be noted that not one scientist of the very first class, whose Indian was acquired in the field and not in the library, has ever voluntarily adopted this extraordinary literal jargon, nor yet the "Englished" proper names. When there is such speed to "reform" the safe and invariable Spanish spelling, why must we have familiar English sounds hidden behind unfamiliar symbols? When *d*=th, and *s*=sh, and *ts*=ch, why, in the name of reason, may we not have th and sh and ch? There is no sound attempted to be conveyed by this alien alphabet which could not be as well or better conveyed by the letters and symbols in every printer's "case." Even if we have to employ the apostrophe for that curious hiatus so common in some of our aboriginal tongues, and its Greek reverse for certain aspirates, and in desperate cases (rarer in Navajo than in other Southwestern tongues) the not recondite umlaut, it would still be a vast gain in legibility. As a matter of common sense, the scheme of pronunciation for an aboriginal tongue must be based on Continental values. To try to define unknown sounds on an English key is palpably impossible. The only Continental standard which has historic application to our aborigines is Spanish. The Spanish nomenclature has become in three centuries crystallized upon the Southwest, its history, its literature, its science, the daily speech of half a million of its American citizens; and there is something parvenu in replacing it with the inexact and esoteric cacography invented by theorists to whom Dr. Matthews certainly should not stand in the relation of pupil.

Mon Vieux Paris. Deuxième Série. Par Édouard Drumont. 100 dessins de Gaston Coindre. Paris: Ernest Flammarion; New York: Brentano.

M. Drumont's continuation of 'Mon Vieux Paris' is a kind of 'Twenty Years After.' The first volume appeared in 1878, and the intervening time has accentuated the author's devotion to the past by increasing his disgust for the present. His tone reminds one of Talleyrand's valedictory remark that to know how pleasant life can be, one must have lived under the *ancien régime*. M. Drumont, possibly to heighten the effect of his narrative, but more probably from genuine antiquarian feeling, launches innuendoes and even diatribes on every page against the "germanisation" of Paris during the past twenty-five years, and against the modern lack of good taste in urban construction. The Germans naturally catch it the hardest. "L'Allemand a pris possession de la capitale: il a eu ses quatre corps d'armée pour l'invasion comme en 1870: les Philosophes à la Schopenhauer, les Financiers voleurs, les Musiciens et les Vendeurs de bocks." One must open Hare's 'Walks' in the various Italian towns to find such bitterness of spirit concerning modern changes and governments. Even Hare, when assailing the "Sardinian kingdom," is hardly so abusive as M. Drumont becomes in criticising the shortcomings of the Third Republic. According to him, it has repudiated its promise to bring in the reign of general fraternity and justice, and has nothing to show "qu'une longue suite d'humiliations, de turpitudes et de scandales." From a deserted Palais Royal, a deformed Champs-Élysées, and huge brasseries "décorées avec un luxe criard," he turns for relief to the Paris which was picturesque before the influx of strangers had taken it from the French and handed it over to a "colluvies omnium gentium."

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M. Drumont's "vieux Paris" of the present series is not a very ancient one. So far from attempting to discuss the misty and forgotten Lutetia, he is chary about venturing even into the Valois period. His chapters are separate studies, and almost all of them begin with the Revolution. The most useful to the historical reader (though its symmetry is marred by too long and frequent extracts from the *Journal de Paris*) is that which traces the wanderings of successive legislative assemblies during the last hundred years. M. Drumont begins with the Salle des États-Généraux at Versailles, and comes down to the Republican gathering at the Luxembourg after Sedan. The theme affords him a favorable opportunity (of which he takes full advantage) to slate the constitutional bodies of the first Revolution. He has collected a great deal of acceptable information, but it is interlarded with such constant detraction that one is almost forced to read between the lines and see in what purports to be archæology a political animus. Other leading chapters take up the Palais Royal, the Tuileries, the Champs-Élysées, the Trocadéro, and the Hôtel de Ville. The heading, "Alexandre Lenoir et le Musée des Monuments Français" introduces a purely artistic subject, and "L'Hôtel de Sens" revives the illustrious Tristan de Salazar, the scandals of Duprat, and the gallantries of Marguerite de Valois. To show the width of M. Drumont's range we may mention also two pieces which, in their present context, are somewhat unexpected, though beyond criticism on account of their value: the one an analysis of the municipal budget in 1774, and the other an analysis of the accounts kept by Denys-Marie Armand from the 20th Ventôse to the 20th Thermidor of the year II.

Among the symptoms of M. Drumont's discontent with French ideals of the moment is dislike of international exhibitions. After running over his remarks on the national shortsightedness in promoting them, no one can accuse him of having published this work that it may sell largely among those who are already preparing to visit Paris in 1900. He maintains that the French, by revealing their methods of manufacture, have cut the tree to get its fruit; have killed the goose to get her golden eggs. He holds that a world's fair is organized for the benefit of the large, well-established businesses, of the Paris shops, and of the hotels. It flourishes at the expense of the small producer. Yet, though M. Drumont may despise foreign visitors to Paris as much as he censures those who exploit them, his book in both its parts ought to prove extremely serviceable to the intelligent tourist. It is *Gallic in its terseness and lucidity; Gallic*, too, in its ignorance of other countries and in its vaunting strain. M. Drumont calls a former English owner of the Hôtel de Noailles, "sir Egerton," and appears to have only just learned from Paul Bourget that in America towns of 100,000 inhabitants spring up suddenly. Were his knowledge of other capitals wider he might soften an occasional superlative.

We must accord special praise to the beautiful illustrations of Gaston Coindre with which these pages are studded. M. Drumont neatly observes in the preface that when he espies the earlier volume on a table, he sometimes forgets that he has written the text, and, carried away by M. Coindre's sketches, exclaims, "Quel joli petit livre!" Their delicacy is indeed admirable, and they are a relief to the monotony of current photographic reproduction. The proof-reading is of a lower quality. Slips like *resbytère* for *presbytère*, and *Place ou Carrousel* for *Place du Carrousel* are too frequent in an edition which has pretensions to neatness. We have mentioned all the cavils that need be made, and can conclude by stating that the second series of 'Mon Vieux Paris' is one of those books which render the Dingley bill a weariness to the flesh.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Birch. A New Aristocracy. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Caro, Madam. Bitter Fruits. F. T. Neely.
Champion, Edme. La France d'après les Cahiers de 1789. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Clarke, M. The Story of Troy. American Book Co. 60c.
Coakley, T. W. Keef: A Life-Story in Nine Phases. Boston: C. E. Brown & Co. $1.
Colton, Calvin. Works of Henry Clay. 7 vols. New York: Henry Clay Publishing Co.
Cooke, Frances E. England. [History for Young Readers.] Appletons. 60c.
Courthope, Prof. W. J. A History of English Poetry. Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.50.
Cranch, C. P. Translation of the Æneid. Books I.-III. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Crozier, J. B. History of Intellectual Development. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Daudet, Alphonse. La Fédor: Pages de la Vie. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
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